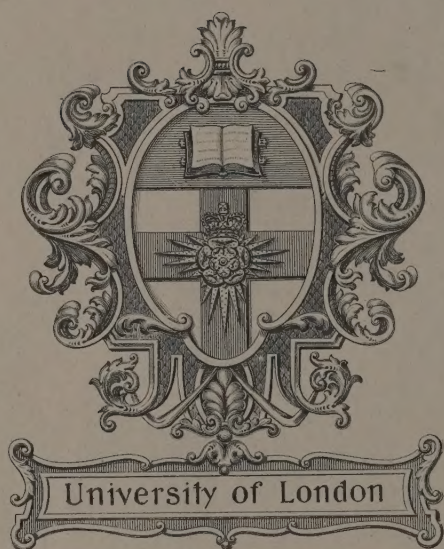
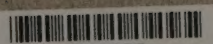






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ACCOUNTS AND PAPERS:

SIXTY-THREE VOLUMES.

—(41.)—

COMMERCIAL AND GENERAL INTERESTS, &c.—(*continued*) ;
COMMERCIAL REPORTS.

Session

31 *January* 1893—5 *March* 1894.

VOL. XC.

1893-94.

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1893-94.

SIXTY-THREE VOLUMES:—CONTENTS OF THE

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1892.
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Nº. 260.

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REPORT ON THE:

BUENOS AYRES PORT AND WET DOCKS WORKS.

*Issued during the Recess and Presented to both Houses of Parliament
by Command of Her Majesty.*

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ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

BUENOS AYRES.

Consul Bridgett to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord, Buenos Ayres, August 25, 1892.
I HAVE the honour herewith to transmit to your Lordship a Plan* of the Buenos Ayres Port Works, with full details, as well as information respecting the Boca del Riachuelo Channel and Dry Dock of San Fernando.

I have, &c.
(Signed) RONALD BRIDGETT.

Report on Port of Buenos Ayres and particulars of Wet Docks.

ABSTRACT of Contents.

	PAGE
Particulars of south basin ; lock and dock No. 1	2
Particulars of docks Nos. 2 and 3	3
Particulars of north basin	4
Report on creek and river known as " Boca del Riachuelo "	4
Particulars of dry dock at San Fernando	5

The name of the docks is the " Puerto Madero," and the Description. Argentine Government is the proprietor.

The port when completed will comprise four large docks and two basins.

The South Basin—Docks Nos. 1, 2, and 3 are completed, Dock No. 4 is not yet commenced.

* Not printed. May be inspected on personal application at Commercial Department, Foreign Office.—Ed.

The North Basin is under construction. The works run almost due north and south in front of the town of Buenos Ayres; the South Basin opening out of the Riachuelo River, and the North Basin being built on the site of the old Catalinas Mole. The docks are constructed in a straight line, one following the other in between the two basins.

PARTICULARS of South Basin (Opened January, 1889).

	Acres.	Metres.	Feet in.
Area	35	..	..
Length	..	1,100	= 3,608 0
Width.. .. .	..	100	328 0
Length of quayage	..	1,180	3,870 6
Width of entrance	..	100	328 0
Depth of water at entrance to basin at high water, ordinary tides ..	..	..	23 10
Depth of water at entrance at low water	..	..	21 4

Hydraulic cranes, No. 15, to lift 30 cwts., capable of discharging 40 tons each per hour.

Three large sheds, 126 metres long by 26 metres wide.

The opening out of the north end of South Basin is Dock No. 1 through a lock.

PARTICULARS of Lock.

	Metres.	Feet in.
Length of lock	194	= 636 4
Width at entrance	20	65 6
Depth of water over sill at high water ..	..	24 6
" " low	..	21 9

PARTICULARS of Dock No. 1 (Opened January, 1890).

	Acres.	Metres.	Feet in.
Water area	23	..	..
Length	..	570	= 1,870 0
Width.. .. .	..	160	525 0
Length of quayage	..	1,430	4,658 0

Jetties—No. of—nil.

Hydraulic cranes, No. 2, to lift 5 tons, capable of discharging 60 tons each per hour.

Hydraulic cranes, No. 18, to lift 30 cwts., capable of discharging 40 tons each per hour.

Three large sheds, 126 metres by 26 metres.

Two large warehouses, four floors, 50 metres by 52 metres, each warehouse having three 30-cwt. hydraulic wall cranes for discharging into carts.

PARTICULARS of Dock No. 2 (Opened October, 1890).

	Acres.	Metres.	Feet	in.
Water area	23	..	..	..
Length	..	570	= 1,870	0
Width.. .. .	..	160	525	0
Length of quayage	..	1,430	4,658	0

Jetties—No. of—nil.

Hydraulic cranes, No. 17, to lift 30 cwts., capable of discharging 40 tons each per hour.

Two large sheds, 126 metres by 26 metres.

Two large warehouses, four floors, 50 metres by 52 metres, each warehouse having three 30-cwt. hydraulic wall cranes for discharging into carts.

PARTICULARS of Dock No. 3 (Opened April, 1892).

	Acres.	Metres.	Feet	in.
Water area	27	..	..	..
Length	..	690	= 2,263	0
Width.. .. .	..	160	525	0
Length of quayage	..	1,640	5,379	0

Jetties—No. of—nil.

Hydraulic cranes, No. of—nil.

Four large warehouses in course of construction.

Particulars of dock No. 4 (not commenced).

PARTICULARS of North Basin (in course of Construction).

	Acres.	Metres.	Feet	n.
Water area	41	..	..	..
Length	..	370	= 1,213	6
Width.. .. .	..	390	1,279	..
Length of quayage (excluding jetties)	..	..	4,984	0
Jetties—No. of—2 .. (length each)	..	..	656	0
Width at entrance to basin	..	..	328	0
Depth of water at entrance to basin	..	..	..	..
at high water, ordinary tides ..	..	..	3	10
Depth of water at entrance to basin	..	..	..	..
at low water	..	..	21	..

Hydraulic crane to lift 30 tons to be erected.

Report on Creek and River known as "Boca del Riachuelo" at the entrance of the "Puerto Madero" Docks, Buenos Ayres.

Description. A small creek forms the entrance to the Buenos Ayres Docks and also to the "Boca Channel."

CREEK.

	Metres.
Length	415
Width, mean	245
Area of water	101,675
Length of quayage	415

BOCA RIVER OR CHANNEL.

	Metres.	Feet.
Length of channel.. .. .	3,985	..
Width, mean	85	..
Area of water	338,725	..
Mean depth, ordinary tides ..	..	19
Length of quayage.. .. .	3,985	..

Private quayage also as follows:—

	Metres.
"Southern Railway" wharf	425
"La Plátense Steamship Company's" wharf	135
"Central Markets" wharf	475

The facilities for loading operations are: hydraulic cranes, four, to lift $1\frac{1}{2}$ tons; hydraulic cranes, one, to lift 10 tons; grain elevators, two, belonging to the "Great Southern Railway" and "Central Produce Market."

The project to widen the Boca River to 100 metres throughout is to be carried out. But the period of its termination is very doubtful, although the works have been commenced in July last.

The approaches to the Buenos Ayres Docks are reduced to a channel 20 kiloms. in length and 70 metres wide by 21 feet depth, leading from the outer roads.

It is also proposed to widen it to 100 metres throughout, with a depth of 21 feet.

*Particulars of "Dry Dock" at San Fernando, close to
Buenos Ayres.*

						Feet	in.
Length	..	..	..	..	..	330	0
Breadth at entrance	..	..	..	..	..	64	0
Height of sill above bottom of dock	..	..	..	..	..	2	6

No regular tide—subject to state and force of wind.

Average tide over sill 10 feet.

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ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

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REPUBLIC.

*Issued during the Recess and Presented to both Houses of Parliament
by Command of Her Majesty.*

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ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

BUENOS AYRES.

Consul Bridgett to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord, *Buenos Ayres, October 14, 1892.*
I HAVE the honour to transmit to your Lordship herewith a
Report on the Production of Sugar in the Argentine Republic.
I have, &c.
(Signed) RONALD BRIDGETT.

Report on the Production of Sugar in the Argentine Republic.

ABSTRACT of Contents.

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Machinery, French, German, and English	3
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Sugar production	3
Sugar, price	4
Refineries.. .. .	4
Tax on sugar factories	4
Imports of sugar	4
Duty	4
Rum	4
Crop of sugar	5

The growth of cane and production of sugar in the Argentine Republic has, of late years, become quite an important industry, in a great measure owing to the facilities offered by the extension of railways for conveyance of improved machinery for extracting the cane juice. Importance of sugar industry.

Formerly mills with two wooden rollers worked by bullocks or mules were used, extracting not more than half the juice contained in the cane; now mills with three or more powerful Methods of extracting sugar.

iron cylinders or rollers are in use, extracting from 60 per cent. to 80 per cent. of juice, according as single or double crushing—as it is called—is resorted to.

The fibre or "megass" forms 10 per cent. to 12 per cent. of the total weight of the cane.

In simple crushing three rollers are used forming one mill, but, on the more advanced estates two of those mills are arranged tandem fashion, and the partially crushed cane of the first mill goes through the second, when a further extraction of juice takes place. At the same time the fibre or "megass" leaves the mill so much drier, or with so much less juice in it, that it is fit for direct consumption as fuel in the furnaces.

The factories are all fitted with the most modern and advanced appliances for making what is known as raw sugar for refiners, or grocery sugars for direct consumption.

They all have triple effects, vacuum pans, and centrifugals, which many of the West Indian plantations are still without.

Another method of extracting the juice than the mill has recently been adopted on at least two estates, the diffusion process, whereby the last drop of juice is taken from the cane.

This, the almost universal mode in late years in the beet factories, is well known to sugar planters, and in use in various parts of the world, such as Demerara, Fiji Islands, Queensland, and the French islands of Guadeloupe, Martinique, &c.

It has made slow progress in cane plantations, as the machinery plant is much more costly, and the amount of fuel needed is enormous.

The diffusors are batteries of 12 or more tanks, furnished with doors top and bottom, and connected one with the other by pipes for juice, water, and steam.

Operations are begun by putting the canes into a slicing machine, which cuts the cane across into little chips of one-eighth inch thick, these chips are carried to the diffusors, and each filled in succession.

When the first or No. 1 is full, the top door is closed, and hot water let in, which in its downward passage through the chips takes up much of the sweetness; it is passed into No. 2 at top, again in its downward course getting richer at the expense of No. 2. In like fashion it goes on through all the battery, save two or three which are being emptied and refilled with chips.

When the water with its cargo of juice has reached the 10th tank a portion is drawn off, the rest made to flow to No. 11 where another portion is withdrawn, the rest passing into No. 12 and so on.

In this mode the last drop of juice may be diffused out of the cane.

The remaining chips are passed through a cane mill, and though the intention was, at least in one large factory, to carry these for direct consumption to the furnaces, yet it did not succeed, so they are carried to a field, dried in the open air, and then taken for fuel.

The other part of the process for converting the juice to sugar, or rather getting the sugar from the juice, is similar to that followed out where the mills are employed, except that defecation and clarification is conducted in the diffusors, and not in separate vessels; but the evaporation is done in triple effects, and crystallisation, first, in the vacuum pan, and, secondly and thirdly, in tanks, just as in the older process. So also are centrifugals used for the separation of the molasses from the crystals.

French machinery is used in many of the factories; as French engineers offered inducements, and every facility to landowners to put down sugar plant, by giving easy terms of payment in the shape of long credit, which for some years looked bad for the French firms, until the increase of duty on imported sugar took the growers out of the pit into which many of them had sunk. French machinery.

German machinery has also found its way into Tucuman, but only in small quantities; but it can in no way compete with the English, nor are the French mills to be compared for strength and solidity with those of British manufacture. On the other hand the English makers may well take a lesson from the French in vacuum pumps, for simplicity of design and smoothness of working they are infinitely ahead of any English examples. German machinery.

The province of Tucuman is the principal producer, but the provinces of Santiago del Estero, Salta, Corrientes, and Misiones add their quota. Sugar-cane growth.

The canes are planted in rows, in large fields, and carefully irrigated, and the roots will last 10 years to 15 years without renewal.

Each manufacturer grows a certain amount of cane, and also buys from surrounding farmers. The harvest commences about May or June, and continues till August and September.

The cane must be crushed when freshly cut, and the yield varies from 80 tons to 100 tons per square of $4\frac{1}{4}$ acres, according to dampness or dryness of the season and age of the roots.

The yield of juice is a varying quantity of from 70 per cent. to 85 per cent.

This, again, yields a varying quantity of sugar.

100 tons of cane may be expected to yield from 6 per cent. to 7 per cent. of raw sugar in three grades under the centrifugal process.

The first molasses thrown off by the rapid revolutions of the cylinders are again boiled, and the process repeated a second and a third time.

The final residue is distilled, and for each 100 tons of cane there will be obtained about 25 gallons of alcohol of 38 degrees to 42 degrees of strength, according to the French scale of Cartier.

It is difficult to arrive with accuracy at the amount of sugar produced in the Republic, but the amount conveyed over the lines of railway leaving Tucuman will give an idea, which was 41,835 tons in 1891, as compared with 25,000 tons in 1880. This does not include the local consumption. Production of sugar-cane.

Refineries. A large refinery has recently been started at Rosario, on the River Parana, and this takes off annually some 20,000 tons to 25,000 tons.

It is only quite recently that Tucuman sugar has found its way down to the litoral provinces, but it now competes successfully with imported sugar.

Tax on sugar factories. By a recent Law of Congress sugar factories are liable to a property tax, and a published return gives their number at 36, and their valuation at 4,970,000 dol. paper, which at 16 dol. 50 c. per 1*l.* equals 3,106,000*l.*

Imports. The following table gives the importation of foreign sugar for 7 years past, and also the crop locally produced :—

Year.					Imported.	Crop.
					Tons.	Tons.
1886	..	..	..	..	13,200	30,000
1887	..	..	..	..	22,900	30,000
1888	..	..	..	..	19,400	35,000
1889	..	..	..	..	34,500	40,000
1890	..	..	..	..	29,500	35,000
1891	..	..	..	..	12,800	42,000
1892	..	..	..	..	..	50,000*

* Estimated.

The relative quantities vary considerably, but if the figures of 1891, viz., a crop of 42,000 tons, against an import of 12,800 tons (which show the highest difference yet reached), are to be continued in future years in an increasing ratio, foreign sugar will cease to be an article of import into the Argentine Republic.

Duty. The customs duty on refined sugar is 9 c. gold per kilo., say 18*l.* 5*s.* per ton, and on unrefined sugar 7 c. per kilo., say 14*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.* per ton; and it is no doubt owing greatly to this high protective duty that the sugar industry has been of late so greatly developed.

Of course, the provinces distant from the sea-board can always take off a large quantity. There must be a point, under any circumstances, where, owing to cost of transport, foreign sugar will be unable to compete with home-grown; but I need not enter upon the matter.

Price of sugar. Argentine refined sugar is sold in Buenos Ayres to-day at 6 dol. 50 c. paper currency per 10 kilos., say 40*l.* 15*s.* per ton, and French sugar brings, say, 6 dol. 80 c. to 7 dol. paper per 10 kilos., or 43*l.* 13*s.* duty paid.

Rum. The manufacturers are in expectancy as regards the new duties on sugar proposed to Congress, and if sugar can bear them, with a reduction in the valuation of gold, rum ("aguardiente"), on the other hand, will certainly not be able to compete with that produced from maize in Buenos Ayres, or the litoral provinces, owing to the excessive freights and charges.

TABLE showing the Estimated Amount of the Present Season's
Sugar Crop with the Names of the Factories.

Sugar Factory.	Quantity of sugar.
	Arrobes.
Guzman y Cia.	300,000
Mendez y Chavanne	300,000
W. Posse	160,000
Gallo Hermanos	153,000
Domingo Garcia	100,000
Padilla Hermanos	200,000
Hilaret (Lules)	100,000
Hilaret (Santa Ana)	200,000
Mendez, Salvatierra y Cia.	200,000
Los Ingleses	300,000
Moregnes Hos.	150,000
Los Cordobeses	100,000
G. Taboada	60,000
Natto	80,000
Paz y Posse	60,000
A. Medina	150,000
A. Medina	100,000
Avellaneda y Tellav	80,000
F. Bustamante y Cia.	100,000
R. Pondal	50,000
E. Tornquist y Cia.	250,000
F. Berna	30,000
J. Vegne y Cia	100,000
Leon Reyes y Cia.	40,000
Fernandez (Bella Vista)	50,000
R. Ferreyra	50,000
La Reduccion	150,000
Federico Moreno	100,000
J. Frias	60,000
J. Videla	100,000
C. Usandivaras	40,000
San Felipe	10,000
D. Jigena	60,000
El Chaco, Corrientes y Santiago	500,000
Total	4,483,000
Equal to, say	50,000 tons.

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Reference to previous Report, Miscellaneous Series No. 216.

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

BUENOS AYRES.

Acting-Consul Gastrell to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Buenos Ayres, June 20, 1893.

I HAVE the honour to forward to your Lordship herewith a short Report on the Immigration and Emigration Movement for the Argentine Republic in 1892-93. Your Lordship will notice that Immigration has again begun to increase and Emigration to decrease. In 1892 Immigration has exceeded Emigration by some 29,000 persons, whereas in 1891 Emigration exceeded Immigration by nearly 30,000 people. The Argentine Government is now desirous of paying more attention to the necessities of Immigrants, especially in the direction of enabling them to purchase small lots of land. It is proposed to considerably revise land legislation by a Bill shortly to be laid before the National Congress.

I have, &c.

(Signed) WILLIAM S. H. GASTRELL.

Report on the Immigration and Emigration Movement for the Argentine Republic in 1892-93.

ABSTRACT of Contents.

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(1613) A 2

Importance of immigration.

Remarks on immigration and lands by the President of the Republic to Congress.

The question of foreign immigration in the Argentine Republic is becoming every day more important to its development and successful progress, and is now again seriously attracting the notice of the Argentine Government. The President of the Argentine Republic, Dr. Saenz Peña, in his message, on opening the National Congress in May last, spoke thus on this important subject:

“During 1892, the immigration was 93,550, and during the first quarter of the current year it amounted to 28,947. Comparing these figures with those of emigration we have a balance in our favour of 38,268 for last year, and 13,447 for the first quarter of this year. The following table indicates the increase:—

Year.							Number of Immigrants.
1891	..	..	..	..	..	..	73,550
1892	..	..	..	..	..	..	93,550

“This is spontaneous immigration, attracted by the prosperity of people who have already settled here. Labour also attracts many immigrants. There is, moreover, a steady stream of immigration from neighbouring countries. The following shows the emigration from the country:—

Year.							Number of Emigrants.
1891	..	..	..	..	..	..	90,936
1892	..	..	..	..	..	..	55,282

“The present emigration is normal: it is the result of business and family duties, people going home either for business or to fetch their families. We put down the number of discontented emigrants at 5 per cent. We propose to devote more attention to the subject of immigration, which it is advisable to foment indirectly, by facilitating the purchase of land and housing the immigrants properly on their arrival. We have a vast territory unsettled which should be handed over to immigrants, and the control of this business we propose to take from the Land Office and hand over to the Immigration Office”; and with regard to land and colonies he said:—“The working of the Land Office has been seriously interfered with, owing to the suspension of the Director pending enquiry into the charges brought against him. We must revise our land legislation. We must give long leases; we must give the settler preferential right to buy; we must survey and split up the land; we must avoid selling large areas

so as to suppress speculation; we must offer facilities for purchase. These ideas will shortly be embodied in a Bill."

"The organisation and estimates of the Agricultural Department must be reformed in view of the extraordinary development of agriculture in the country, and we must not forget that we have to compete with other countries."

The figures given in this message seem rather misleading. The total arrivals during 1892 were 93,550—the figures quoted by the President—which include all first class passengers as well. In the official returns of the Argentine Immigration Office, immigrants include second and third class only, and they number 73,294 in 1892, of whom 39,973 only arrived direct from abroad; the balance over 1891 in favour, therefore, of immigrants being 21,197 during that year. The balance of 38,268 is the excess for 1892 of arrivals over departures of all 1st, 2nd, and 3rd class passengers.

The present Government seems inclined to thoroughly revise the office of Lands and Colonies and to prevent former abuses. The Director of that public department has been dismissed on this account, and a new person appointed to that office. The importance of having a thoroughly good administration in the Land Office here is most necessary in the interests both of intending colonists and of the State.

Facilities for the immigrant purchasing small lots are a question that is to be enquired into; and some law on the subject will probably be brought before Congress before long.

The Argentine as well as the foreign press has this year several times enlarged upon the absence of guarantees for life and property, especially in the provinces.

Municipal statistics show that crime in the city of Buenos Ayres has doubled in the last three years. Stabbing has increased 50 per cent. and robberies 100 per cent. in that period.

A severe article recently appeared in an Argentine paper on "Immigration turned into Emigration," and the serious Government responsibility it involved. It pointed out that efforts should be made especially in the direction of preventing crime, which gives the Republic a bad name, and of stopping this unfortunately large current of emigration.

Two former reports of mine (No. 216, Miscellaneous Series, and No. 1147, Annual Series) have dealt fully with the subject of immigration and emigration since 1857 up to 1891 and part of 1892. Appended to this report, however, is a table showing the whole movement of immigration and emigration up to date. An interesting diagram is also given (page 8a) showing the comparative increase and decrease of population and immigration since 1869, based on the assumption that the population of the Argentine Republic to-day may be 4,100,000 persons.

It will be seen from that diagram that the population has progressed steadily, but that immigration has in the last five years been most erratic, largely due to the extensive subsidies to immigrants, granted in the years 1888 to 1890 (see Report No. 216,

(1613)

On
agriculture.

Government
proposes to
revise Land
and
Immigration
Department.

Proposed Bill
to facilitate
purchase of
small lots by
immigrants.
Argentine
press on crime
and
emigration.

Diagram of
immigration
since 1869.

Former
subsidised
immigration.

Immigration
in 1886-92
compared.

Miscellaneous Series), at a cost of 800,000L. to the Argentine Government, whereby a forced immigration of 134,081 persons was obtained. In 1886 immigration numbered 93,116 persons: in 1889 it had soared to 260,909. But in the following year, 1890, it fell to 110,494 only, in spite of 20,121 persons obtained by subsidised passages. In 1891 immigrants were reduced to 52,097, or less than the number of emigrants by 29,835 persons. The year 1892 shows a slight upward movement in the line of immigration on the annexed diagram after its headlong fall since 1889. In 1892 immigrants numbered 73,294, and emigrants 43,853.

Excess of
immigration
or emigration
in 1888-92.

The excess of immigration or emigration for the last five years is given in the following table:—

TABLE comparing Immigration and Emigration during the Years 1888-93.

Years.	Immigration.	Emigration.	Gain or Loss to Argentine Republic.
1888*	155,632	16,842	+ 138,790
1889	260,909	40,649	+ 220,260
1890	110,594	82,981	+ 27,517
1891	52,097	81,932	- 29,835
1892	73,294	43,853	+ 29,441
Total	652,526	266,257	+ 386,269
Up to April 1, 1893.. ..	21,876	15,500	+ 6,376

* The years 1888 to August 1891 were those of subsidised immigration and include 134,081 persons so subsidised.

Gain in
immigrants
for 5 years
652,376.

This return shows the Argentine Republic gained 652,526 persons by immigration in the past five years, of whom 246,159 were Italians; that 266,257 left the country, leaving, however, a net gain of 386,269 immigrants.

Analysis of
immigration
and
emigration.

The year 1891 shows a net loss to the country of 29,835 persons, largely former immigrants, a result of the economic and financial crisis of 1890, and from which the country has now partially recovered.

The excess of immigration over emigration in 1892 was slightly over that in 1890, and it really represents more, as 20,121 immigrants in 1890 were subsidised by the State. In the diagram of immigration in the appendix, it will be seen that in 1891 the total immigration returned to the level of that of the year 1882—a retrogression of 10 years. Even in the years 1873 and 1874 a larger number of immigrants arrived than in 1891.

The year
1892.

The year 1892 shows a gain of 29,441 immigrants, as against a loss in 1891 of 29,835. This is due to a larger immigration

this year, namely, 73,294, as compared with 52,097 in 1891, and to emigration in 1892 only amounting to a half of that in the former year 1891. This speaks for the improvement of the condition of the country generally, and the same improvement took place during the early portion of the present year, but the last two months show a large number of departures, notably of Italians, who came out merely to reap the harvest here, and who are now returning to Italy. This migratory and periodical immigration and emigration of Italians is considerable, and always swells temporarily the tide of immigration towards the end of the year for the beginning of the Argentine harvest, as also the flow of emigration to Europe in the months of April and May, when the harvest here is completed.

Periodical migration of Italians to the Argentine Republic and return.

This movement may be seen to some extent from the following table of arrivals and departures at European ports of persons travelling to and from this country in 1892.

Arrivals and departures from European ports.

TABLE showing Immigration to and Emigration from Argentine Republic during the Year 1892.

					Number.	
					From—	To—
European ports—						
Genoa	..	..	..	..	22,024	14,317
Naples	..	..	..	..	1,861	5,263
Barcelona	..	..	..	..	1,451	1,654
Bordeaux	..	..	..	..	2,489	1,730
Hamburg	..	..	..	..	1,617	71
Marseilles	..	..	..	..	1,302	1,340
Havre	..	..	..	..	1,126	1,683
Bremen	..	..	..	..	659	607
Vigo	..	..	..	..	871	1,726
Southampton ..	..	..	..	..	439	328
Cadiz	..	..	..	..	399	715
Various	..	..	..	..	1,883	831
Total Europe					36,121	30,265
Brazil	..	..	..	..	6,680	1,697
Various	..	..	..	..	219	666
Grand total					43,020	32,628

Classified according to nationalities, we obtain the following results for immigrants who arrive direct from abroad :—

Arrivals according to nationalities in 1890 to 1892.

Nationality.	1890.	1891.	1892.	Increase or Decrease.	
				1891.	1892.
Italians	39,122	15,511	27,850	- 23,711	+ 12,339
Spaniards	13,560	4,290	5,650	- 9,270	+ 1,360
Russians	...	2,953	1,623	+ 2,953	- 1,330
French	17,104	2,915	2,115	- 14,189	- 800
Germans	1,271	832	785	- 439	- 47
Swiss	959	352	364	- 607	+ 12
British	1,108	272	224	- 836	- 48
Austrian	1,918	263	552	- 1,655	+ 289
Belgians	762	241	146	- 521	- 95
Others	2,011	627	664	- 1,384	+ 37
Total	77,815	28,266	39,973	- 49,549	+ 11,707

Analysis of table.

This table shows a satisfactory recovery, especially for the Italians whose numbers arriving here, instead of being reduced as in 1891 by 23,711, have in 1892 increased by 12,339. The immigration of Spaniards and Austrians has also increased, as also the Swiss. But all the rest are still falling-off. As regards British immigrants, their numbers fell from 272 in 1891 to 224 in 1892. And if we look at the nationalities of the departures of immigrants in 1892, it will be found that 78 more British persons of the immigrant class left this country than entered it. In the same year, also, 943 more French persons left than arrived. But the balance in favour of this Republic for Italians was 7,923, for Spanish 897, and for Germans and Austrians 790, and considerable for most other nationalities.

British immigrants' departures exceed arrivals.

French and Italians.

March quarter of 1893.

The returns for the first 3 months of 1893 show a total number of arrivals of 21,876, of which 10,548 were direct from abroad, consisting of 7,487 Italians, 1,672 Spaniards, 521 French, 222 Germans and Swiss, &c. The number of British was 46 only.

Proportion of agriculturists.

In 1892 Italian steamer companies brought 22,000 out of the 39,973 immigrants direct from abroad.

Cost of Immigration Department.

Of the total number of immigrants, classified according to occupations, 48 per cent. appear to have been agriculturists, 20 per cent. day labourers and the rest mostly artisans.

Immigrants' Hotel.

The total expenditure of the Immigration Department was about 21,000%. The Labour Office is stated to have found employment for 19,000 persons, of whom 12,000 were sent to Rosario chiefly for agricultural province of Santa Fé.

Jewish immigration. Occupations of.

The Immigrants' Hotel housed 18,693 immigrants during the year, and nearly 18,000 were landed at the cost of the State.

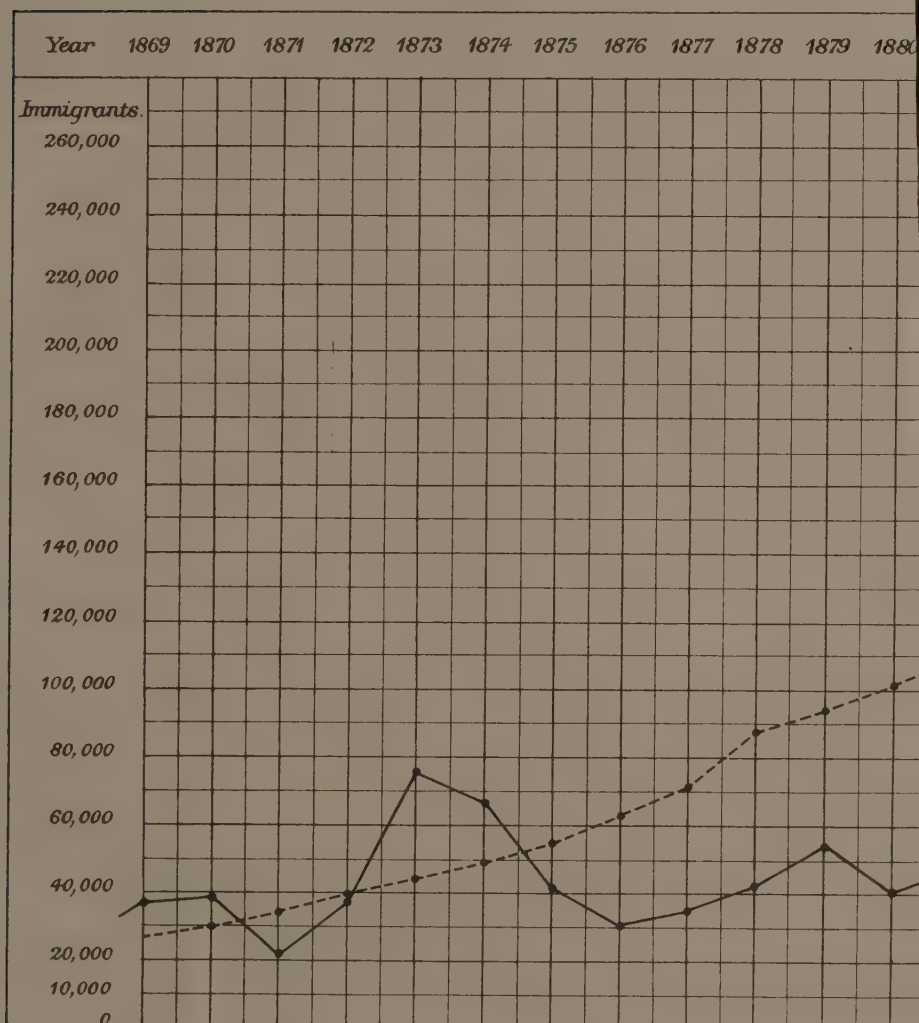
The subject of Jewish colonisation and immigration was fully treated of in Report No. 1147, Annual Series, for 1893.

In 1892, 476 Jewish immigrants arrived and 590 left the Argentine Republic; the greater portion of whom returned to Bremen. Of the arrivals 175 gave their occupation as agriculturists, 153 had no profession, 105 were seamstresses, and the rest small tradespeople.

As regards colonisation by these Jews no opinion can yet be passed on their success.

DIA

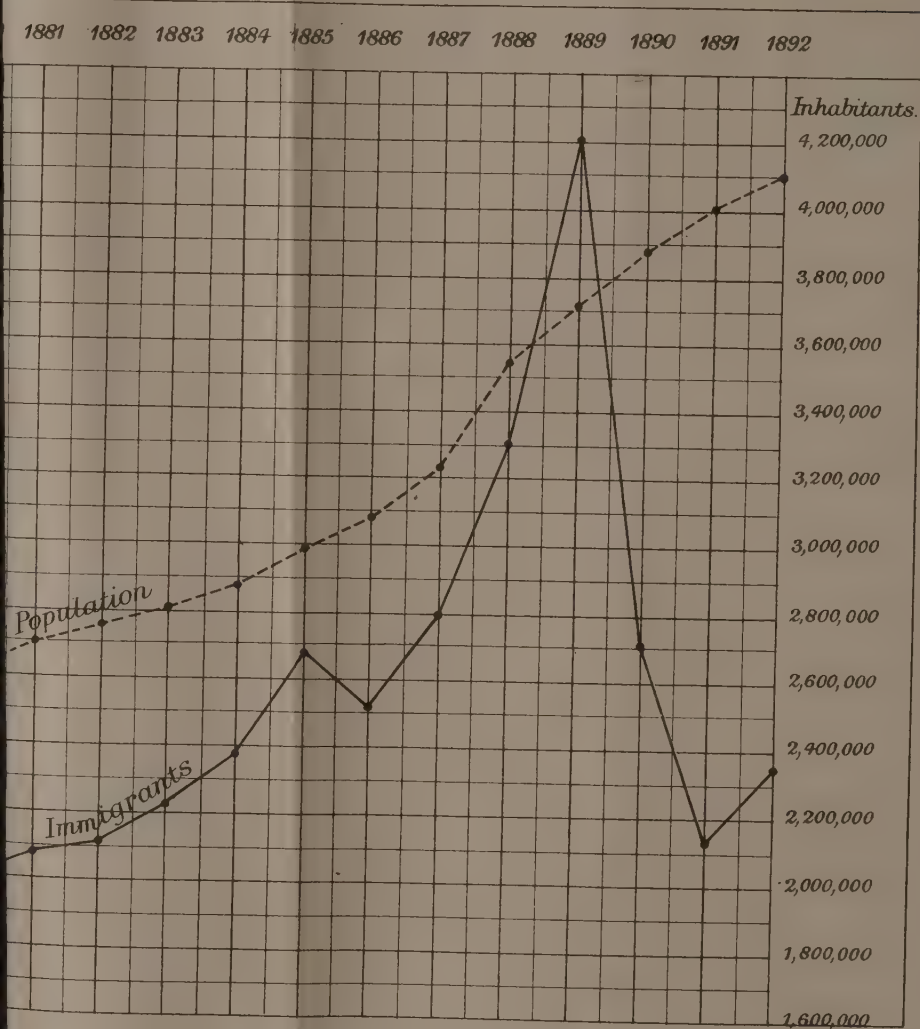
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 0,000 Immigrants.
 0,000 Inhabitants.

The Jewish Colonisation Association has recently acquired still further large tracts of land in the province of Entre Rios for the use of future Jewish immigrants, but it seems that the association has sufficient to do at present in properly establishing those immigrants already placed on their lands.

Jewish Association acquiring more lands.

The numbers of the chief of immigrants in the last 5 years have been as follows:—

Number of chief nationalities arrived 1888 to 1892.

Year.	Italians.	Spaniards.	French.	British.	Germans and Austrians.	Belgians.
1888	75,029	25,485	17,105	2,333	3,869	3,201
1889	88,647	71,151	27,173	4,225	6,824	3,866
1890	39,122	13,560	17,104	1,918	3,189	762
1891	15,511	4,290	2,915	263	1,035	241
1892	27,850	5,650	2,115	552	1,337	146
Total	246,159	130,136	76,412	9,291	16,314	13,016

The Argentine Republic, therefore, in the last 5 years has received nearly 250,000 Italians, 130,000 Spaniards, and 76,000 French immigrants, or between these three nationalities alone over 450,000 persons by immigration.

The suitability of the Argentine Republic to the Latin races is undoubted, and especially so for the Italians who form the bulk of the labouring classes, and who are most sought after on account of their good qualities as labourers. The northern races, as a rule, do not succeed so well. Englishmen of the lower classes do not succeed at all in this country owing to their laziness, want of sobriety, and utter inability to adapt themselves to the manners, custom, and language of the Argentine Republic. They should be strongly advised not to emigrate to this country where they have generally a bad record as labourers, except perhaps in the case of good agriculturists with small capitals and of good domestic servants.

Suitability of the Argentine Republic to Latin races. British labour not suited to the country. Possible exceptions.

Ordinary labour is not well paid, and with a continually varying gold premium it is impossible to know from one month to another what the gold value of wages for every class of labour may represent. Wages which in paper to-day might be fairly remunerative in certain employments might, a week hence, be worth very much less in gold and vice versâ. The Emigrants' Information Office in London is kept up to date, as far as possible, on these questions of wages and their real gold value, as also on the demand for labour. No one should come to this country without first consulting their most recent publications.

Low wages and fluctuation of on gold basis. Advice to intending emigrants.

Generally speaking, northern races start at a considerable disadvantage in the Argentine Republic in many respects; and they find it hard to compete satisfactorily with the Latin races, especially with the Italians, who are comparatively far more frugal, hard-working, and economical in every way.

Northern races start at a disadvantage here.

**Annex 1.—RETURN of Immigration and Emigration during the
Years 1857–92.**

Years.	Immigration.		Total Number of Immigrants.	Total Number of Emigrants.	Excess of Immigration, + ; of Emi- gration, —.
	Direct from Abroad.	Via Monte Video.			
1857	4,951	...	4,951	...	+ 4,951
1858	4,658	...	4,658	...	+ 4,658
1859	4,735	...	4,735	...	+ 4,735
1860	5,656	...	5,656	...	+ 5,656
1861	6,301	...	6,301	...	+ 6,301
1862	6,716	...	6,716	...	+ 6,716
1863	10,408	...	10,418	...	+ 10,418
1864	11,682	...	11,682	...	+ 11,682
1865	11,767	...	11,767	...	+ 11,767
1866	13,696	...	13,696	...	+ 13,696
1867	13,225	3,821	17,046	...	+ 17,046
1868	25,919	3,315	29,234	...	+ 29,234
1869	28,958	8,976	37,934	...	+ 37,934
1870	30,898	9,069	39,967	...	+ 39,967
1871	14,626	6,307	20,933	10,686	+ 10,247
1872	26,208	10,829	37,037	9,153	+ 27,884
1873	48,382	27,950	76,332	18,226	+ 58,096
1874	40,674	27,603	68,277	21,340	+ 46,937
1875	18,533	23,534	42,066	25,578	+ 16,488
1876	14,532	16,433	30,965	13,487	+ 17,478
1877	14,675	21,950	36,325	18,350	+ 17,975
1878	23,624	19,334	42,958	14,860	+ 27,098
1879	32,717	22,438	55,155	23,696	+ 31,459
1880	26,643	15,008	41,651	20,377	+ 21,274
1881	31,431	19,053	47,484	22,374	+ 25,110
1882	41,041	10,462	51,503	8,720	+ 42,783
1883	52,472	10,771	63,243	9,510	+ 53,733
1884	49,623	28,182	77,805	14,444	+ 63,361
1885	60,619	28,104	108,722	14,585	+ 94,137
1886	65,655	27,491	93,116	13,907	+ 79,209
1887	98,898	21,944	120,842	13,680	+ 107,212
1888	130,271	25,361	155,632	16,842	+ 138,790
1889	218,744	42,165	260,909	40,649	+ 220,260
1890	77,815	32,682	110,494	82,981	+ 27,517
1891	28,266	23,831	52,097	81,932	— 29,835
1892	39,973	33,321	73,294	43,553	+ 29,441
Total	1,354,990	432,275	1,787,265	539,190	+ 1,248,075
First three months of 1893	...	...	21,876	15,500	+ 6,376

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1894.

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N^o. 323.

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ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

REPORT ON

BARON HIRSCH'S JEWISH COLONISATION
SCHEME.

*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty,
MARCH, 1894.*

LONDON:
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ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

BUENOS AYRES.

Mr. Bridgett to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Buenos Ayres, January 1, 1894.

I HAVE the honour to forward herewith a Report on Baron Hirsch's Colonisation Scheme, which has been prepared by Mr. W. S. H. Gastrell, H.M.'s Vice-Consul at this port.

I have, &c.

(Signed) RONALD BRIDGETT.

Vice-Consul Gastrell to Mr. Bridgett.

Sir

Buenos Ayres, January 1, 1894.

I HAVE the honour to forward herewith a short Report on the Present Condition of Baron Hirsch's Jewish Colonies in the Argentine Republic which I have drawn up from valuable information, obtained from reliable sources.

This remarkable philanthropic scheme for the establishment of Agricultural Colonies in South America for the benefit of Russian Jews has, so far, succeeded beyond all expectation; and it has now been shown that even those Jews, formerly occupied exclusively in town occupations and destitute of all agricultural knowledge, can become satisfactory agricultural colonists if practically taught and aided in their work, a fact hitherto doubted and often denied. Baron Hirsch's "Jewish Colonisation Association" has 2,000,000*l.* at its disposal, and gives each family its passage out, good land, houses, food, and the best of all agricultural requisites. In return it requires a small part repayment only after every successful harvest, according to what each family can well afford, and until the land becomes the colonist's own property. The Jewish emigrant to the Argentine Republic, backed up by large

capital, is in an enviable position. He enjoys every possible advantage that money can confer, and acquires in a short time a prosperous state, such as emigrants of all other nationalities could not possibly obtain for many years, even under the best auspices. From a social point of view, this enterprise offers many points of interest. All nations in Europe, and more particularly those which have large surplus populations, would do well to study the emigration question and conditions of land purchase in the Argentine Republic, which, as you are aware, has absorbed enormous numbers of European emigrants in past years, and which will undoubtedly become a still larger field for emigration in the near future.

I have, &c. —

(Signed) WILLIAM S. H. GASTRELL.

Report on Condition of Baron Hirsch's Jewish Colonies in October, 1893.

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Persecution of
the Jews.

The history of the Jews as a persecuted race has always been one of extraordinary interest in the economic and social development of Europe. There is something sad and pathetic about the misfortunes of that unfortunate nation in all past history which has ever aroused much sympathy from philanthropists of all creeds and nationalities. Various attempts have been made on the part both of European nations and philanthropists to alleviate their sufferings and to better their condition; but nothing has equalled in conception Baron

Hirsch's extensive and now partly realised project for their freedom from European oppression.

This emancipation has, however, been limited by him to the Russian Jews who, it may be remarked, number some 5,000,000 to 6,000,000 out of the estimated population of 120,000,000 contained in European and Asiatic Russia. The reason of this restriction of assistance to Russian Jews is, no doubt, explained by their especial need of immediate relief from pressing evils.

Relief by Baron Hirsch's scheme granted to Russian Jews only.

During the last 12 years some 400,000 have emigrated from Russia, of whom a very large number have gone to the United States. Only 2 per cent. of them were agriculturists; the other 98 per cent. were employed in small trades and handicrafts, chiefly shoemakers and tailors. This large exodus of working and trading Jews must have had a considerable effect on the labour supply of other countries, and been detrimental to European workers in similar trades and occupations. A large emigration, therefore, of Jews from Europe to the United States, now partly diverted to the Argentine Republic, confers a distinct benefit on many nations, especially as this stream of emigration from Russia is likely to rapidly increase.

Jewish emigration from Russia.

The original plan of this philanthropic scheme proposed to settle abroad on lands of their own many hundreds of thousands of Jews, 25,000 the first year, 30,000 the second, and so on progressively. The question then arose where lands, suitable for such an enterprise, were to be found. Eventually, the Argentine Republic was chosen as the country where this gigantic experiment of benevolent philanthropy was to be carried out. The magnitude of the undertaking may be seen from the fact that 2,000,000*l.* was given by Baron Hirsch as the capital of the Company which he founded to effect this end, and which he registered in London in 1891 under the title of the "Jewish Colonisation Association." This capital was divided in 1,000 shares, of which Baron Hirsch retained 993 and his friends the other seven.

Argentine Republic selected.

"Jewish Colonisation Association," founded 1891 Capital, 2,000,000*l.*

The chief clauses of the Company's prospectus state that the object of the Association is to assist Jews to emigrate from Russia to any countries other than European, and to enable them to become agricultural colonists. But by far the most important and remarkable clause stipulates that any dividends accruing in the future are not to be distributed to the shareholders, but are to be added to the original capital to increase that fund. The knowledge of the existence of this clause effectually does away with the general idea, often expressed by an ignorant public, that this Association might prove profitable both to Baron Hirsch and the other shareholders as a commercial speculation. All the efforts and possible success of the Association can only result in still further benefiting the Jews by increasing the original charitable fund, and consequently in enabling greater numbers to emigrate from Russia. Any loss that may result will only lessen the available fund for this

Its objects.

Profits to be added to capital. Is not a commercial speculation.

Possible extension of the enterprise.	benevolent purpose. Moreover, there is always the hope and possibility that, if this Argentine enterprise be successful, Baron Hirsch may afford further financial aid to this praiseworthy and deserving object. As it is, however, his present colossal work of emancipation is a new and original departure in the world's history, which will leave its indelible mark on the years to come and in the annals of the Jewish nation.
Advantages of Hirsch scheme.	The main practical object of Baron Hirsch's scheme is to place the Jew as quickly as possible in the position of a self-supporting producer of marketable agricultural produce, and not to let him wait years to attain that position gradually, as is the case with all other colonists. This, so to speak, artificial and rapid creation of prosperity for the Jewish colonist is effected by a large initial expenditure of capital on his behalf, but is, in reality, a saving in the end, as he is thereby enabled in a short time to have large areas of land yielding wheat, and to soon pay back part of his debt to the Association. The Jewish Colonisation Association, having capital, can buy every requisite in large quantities and, therefore, cheaply; it can, consequently, supply the colonist at a much smaller cost than he could buy. Baron Hirsch's original idea was, apparently, to give the colonist land and money, and to let him do the best he could for himself on the principle of
Difficulties of colonisation.	"Laissez faire." But in practice this idea has been found impracticable, especially at the commencement of colonisation, when the would-be agriculturist Jew has to learn everything and requires to be practically taught his business, and this is, undoubtedly, the right system in the Argentine Republic, where the colonist, if left to take care of himself, and knowing no Spanish nor where to find his information, would make numberless mistakes fatal to his advancement and prosperity. On the other hand, the Director of the colonies and his staff, by looking after the new arrivals and taking a personal interest in their welfare, can explain both theoretically and practically the essentials of agriculture, and see that they carry out their work on those lines which are necessary to obtain material success.
Necessity of employing practical men.	It is indispensable, therefore, that thoroughly practical men should be engaged in superintending this scheme, in order that its results should be materially and financially satisfactory. This is what has been done this year, with the result that the colonists have now a good harvest before them, and are likely to realise large profits. And it must not be forgotten that none of these colonies are more than 2 years old, and that some are of a still more recent creation. This most satisfactory result reflects the greatest credit on the present administration at Buenos Ayres, and should obtain great <i>kîdos</i> for Mr. M. Kogan, their late Director, now returning to Russia.
Interesting scheme to all Europeans from political	European nations and statesmen would do well to watch the development of this vast scheme with more than common interest both from a social and political point of view; social,

because the rapid and extraordinary settlement of Jewish agricultural colonies by a non-agricultural people in a new land under such peculiar circumstances offers many points of interesting study to the economist; and political, because such a large emigration of Jews from Russia may lead to unseen, as well as foreseen consequences, both in Russia and in other countries.

Labour questions are every year becoming more important in all countries; and a scheme involving the emigration and immigration of hundreds of thousands of workers, and consequent possible increased competition cannot fail to interest the thinking public of every nation to a greater or lesser extent. The battle of life is every day becoming harder: none can afford to ignore that fact. Moreover, Baron Hirsch, or others following in his footsteps, may possibly found other similar associations to take Jews from Russia or elsewhere, and to plant them not only out of Europe, but in any European country. Not only for this reason should European nations watch the development of these new colonies in the Argentine Republic with attention, but also because that country has become a large field for immigration of all nationalities, especially during the few years previous to the Revolution and collapse of the Juarez Celman Government, in 1890. It is as a field for the settlement of the excess of European population, both now and in the future, that every nation should study the conditions of labour and colonisation in the Argentine Republic in the interests of its own people, probably destined to emigrate there. For if these Jewish colonists, with everything in their favour—supplied immediately on arrival with good land, houses, food, all implements and every requisite—should not succeed, other emigrants will not be likely to attempt agriculture on other Argentine colonies where they enjoy none of these advantages, and have to fight their own way at a great disadvantage.

M. Leroy Beaulieu, the French economist, considers that 20 years hence there may not be many unoccupied or cheap lands in the Republic. He thinks that the 30,000,000, estimated by M. Richet in his recent book, "*Phénomènes économiques probables dans l'avenir*," as the population of the Argentine Republic in 1992, and founded on the rather arbitrary assumption that present phenomena will continue throughout the next 100 years, is much more probable than M. Richet's figures for European countries. With a normal progress of population South America will undoubtedly become an immense field for European emigration, in which the Argentine Republic will certainly take a foremost place.* That country, now destined to be the home of part of the tribes of Israel, covers an area equal to nearly one-third of Europe,

* See Report No. 1147, Annual Series, on "Economic Condition of Argentine Republic"; and Report No. 1283, Annual Series, on "Agricultural Condition of Argentine Republic."

Its area and population to-day.	or about 1,212,600 square miles, with a population of only 4,000,000. The region said to be suited to cultivation is about 375,000 square miles, of which only 20,000, or less than 5 per cent., are cultivated this year.
State of agriculture.	Agriculture is comparatively a new source of wealth to this formerly essentially stock-raising Republic, and its extraordinary extension in the last few years has been remarkable. A considerable factor in bringing about this rapid development has, undoubtedly, been the high premium on gold during the last few years which has acted as a bounty on all production. The value of agricultural produce exported in 1893 must be nearly 6,000,000 <i>l.</i> , or three times as large as it was in 1889, 5 years ago. The progress of the Argentine Republic in this respect is shown by the fact that in 1880 it imported 177,000 tons of wheat, whereas in 1893 it exported about 1,000,000 tons. In 1869 only 180,000 acres were under cultivation; in 1893 that area had increased to 12,500,000 acres.
Its progress: 1880 and 1893 compared.	
Russia approves of scheme.	So far Russia has found Baron Hirsch's scheme a good one, according with its policy of Jewish expulsion, and it has sanctioned the advancement of the project in the Council of its Ministers. The Argentine Republic, on the other hand, was at first opposed to it chiefly on social grounds. The Press and many eminent men strongly denounced the idea of allowing a Jewish people to settle in such numbers in their midst, and pointed out the possible danger in the future to social and perhaps political institutions. The Argentine Government, however, eventually approved of the enterprise, and allowed Baron Hirsch's agent to buy lands for these new settlers. The Director-General of Immigration at Buenos Ayres declared that, should it be thought advisable in the future either for political or social reasons to stop this immigration, the influx could be checked by special legislation. For the Argentine Republic this colonisation scheme is of the greatest importance, involving as it does the acquisition of large masses of population by immigration, a factor which cannot be too highly estimated in the economic progress of that country. The vital importance of increasing its population rapidly has been recognised by that nation which made strenuous efforts from 1888 to 1891 to acquire population from abroad artificially, as well as naturally, by subsidised immigration at a cost to the State of 800,000 <i>l.</i> And now that the Jewish colonies have proved a success in practical hands, the Argentine Government views these settlements with still more favour, as it is well aware not only of the Republic's need of more labourers, but also of the necessity of obtaining more capital from abroad, the supply of these having so alarmingly decreased in consequence of the economic crisis of 1890, and of the resulting stagnation of all trade and commercial undertakings.*
Opposition of Argentine Republic to Jewish immigration changes to approval.	
Views of Argentine Government.	
Their absolute want of population.	
Former subsidies of 800,000 <i>l.</i> to acquire population.	
Economic crisis of 1890.	

* See Reports No. 216 and No. 298 on "Immigration into Argentine Republic," Miscellaneous Series.

from over 260,000 in 1888 to 52,000 in 1891, in which year emigration actually exceeded immigration by some 29,000 persons.

The first Jewish colonists came over to the Argentine Republic in 1889. Previous to that time there were two Russian but not Jewish colonies in existence, that of Alvear, on the River Paraná, in the province of Entre-Rios, and that of Olivaria, in the province of Buenos Ayres, which were founded about the year 1877 by some emigrants who are now all rich men, some having as much as 30,000*l.* each. Baron Hirsch's agent first purchased in 1891 two tracts of land to start the Jewish colonies, namely, 9 square leagues near Nueve de Julio, in the province of Buenos Ayres, for the "Mauricio" colony, and 4½ square leagues more in the province of Santa Fé for the colony of "Moisesville," and a representative of the Jewish Colonisation Association was sent to Buenos Ayres to manage its affairs with a suitable staff. Early in 1892 Lieutenant-Colonel Goldsmid assumed the duties of representative and director of the colonies. Under his direction more lands were bought in the province of Entre-Rios, and much solid work of colonisation was accomplished. He was followed early this year by Mr. M. Kogan, a contracting Russian engineer and thoroughly practical man, who had previously been sent out by Baron Hirsch on a commission of inquiry into the state of his colonies, and who has always actively interested himself on behalf of his suffering countrymen. He has proved satisfactorily the practical possibility of colonisation for agricultural purposes even by Jews destitute of all agricultural knowledge. He came out a sceptic as to their success, but returns convinced of their practicability. An account of their present state and condition in October, 1893, will therefore be of especial interest to the public, the more so as there has always been a serious doubt as to the possibility of these people, hitherto mostly accustomed to town life and its occupations, ever becoming satisfactory agriculturists. None of these colonists, with the exception of a few from Bessarabia, knew anything of agriculture on arrival at Buenos Ayres.

Most of them were small trades people, tailors, shoemakers, pedlars, seamstresses, smiths, &c.; and many were worthless loafers of the lowest class, who managed to be included in the first batches of emigrants, and who were afterwards either discharged from the colonies as unfit for colonisation or sent away at their own request. The first arrival of Jewish immigrants was in June, 1891, and during the remainder of that year 2,850 persons arrived; but in October, 1893, the colonists only numbered 2,683, as about 800 had been sent to North America, and the number of arrivals had been reduced on account of colonies not being ready to receive them.

Some 450 families, or more or less 3,000 persons, are expected to arrive before the end of 1893, and a further batch of

First Jewish colonists in 1889.

The two original Hirsch colonies, founded in 1891.

Directors of colonies at Buenos Ayres: Lieut.-Col. Goldsmid and Mr. M. Kogan.

Proved possibility of town Jew becoming a successful agriculturist.

Colonist's original callings.

Expulsion of worthless colonists.

Number of colonists in Oct., 1893, 2,683.

Another 3,000 arriving by Jan. 1, 1894.

Large families
succeed best.

400 to 500 should also arrive by then, consisting of the families or relations of deserving Jews already established, who are brought out in order to bring together large families to work the land, for it is found that a family of about 7 persons, including children, answers best; single men or two together do not succeed so well. There will, therefore, be altogether nearly 6,300 Jews established on Baron Hirsch's colonies by January, 1894, most of whom have come from Southern Russia.

63 square
leagues of
colonisation
lands bought
by Association.
Their position
and cost,
440,000*l.*
spent by
Association to
Oct., 1893.
Value of
lands.

The area of lands bought by the Jewish Colonisation Association up to the present time is 63 square leagues, of which 50 lie in the fertile province of Entre Rios. Of this, however, only about one-third, or 23 square leagues, is colonised. The cost per league has varied from 2,500*l.* to 3,340*l.*; but as much as 7,000*l.* has been paid.

So far nearly 440,000*l.* has been spent on the scheme, of which about one-half has been expended on the purchase of land. The value of these properties is sure to rise in the future, quite apart from the consideration that the mere fact of colonisation at once more than doubles its value when divided into small lots, so that there cannot be any loss on the bulk of the capital invested.

The following table shows the state of the colonised portion of the lands in October, 1893:—

TABLE of Colonised Portion of Baron Hirsch's Colonies in Argentine Republic in October, 1893.

Name of Colony.	Province.	Leagues Colonised.	Population.	Houses.	Oxen.	Horses.	Cows.	Wheat.	Maize.	Linseed.	Lucerne.	Vegetables.	Ploughs.	Harrows.	Threshers.	Reapers.	Sowers.	Drying Machines.	Malze Winnowers.	Lucerne Cutters.	Carts.
PROPERTIES OF THE JEWISH COLONISATION ASSOCIATION.																					
Moisesville ...	Sa. Fé ...	4½	436	98	568	208	342	1,592	...	197	48	40	207	96	2	18	7	2	...	2	36
Mauricio ...	Buenos Ayres ...	9	789	314	2,100	538	238	3,349	2,500	63	232	150	556	410	3	51	11	3	5	1	96
Claro ...	Entre-Rios ...	9	999	270	1,964	756	327	1,347	3,200	...	46	150	482	260	2	21	6	2	1	...	100
San Antonio ...	Entre-Rios ...	291	111	111	484	451	141	380	900	...	5	25	100	77	1	6	...	1	...	1	32
Monigotes ...	Sa. Fé ...	2,000 acres	69	(?)	56	18	40	240	...	...	4	7	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...
UNDER THE PROTECTION OF THE ASSOCIATION.																					
Ballesteros ...	Cordoba ...	1,250 acres	69 (?)	100 (?)	74	74	7	276	380	...	23	7	...	...	...	No data	...	...	...	...	...
San Julio ...	Cordoba ...	23	2,683	793	5,276	2,076	1,128	7,294*	6,980	280	373	379	1,345	843	8	97	24	8	6	4	264
Total ...	...	40	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Other lands still to be colonised...	...	63†	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Total area of lands ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

* In hectares, one hectare = 2.471 acres.

† Square leagues = about 550 square miles.

Present
condition of
colonies
satisfactory.
Their history.

From this statement it will be seen that the present condition of these Jewish colonies is decidedly prosperous, and remarkably so when one remembers that the oldest of them, "Moisesville" and "Mauricio," were only founded $2\frac{1}{2}$ years ago in 1891, and that those of "Clara" and "San Antonio" only date from April, 1892. With regard to the remaining three colonies, "Monigotes" was started $3\frac{1}{2}$ years ago, before the Jewish colonisation existed, by some emigrants from Russia; but their lands were lately bought by Baron Hirsch and incorporated with the present scheme. The two colonies of Ballesteros and San Julio, in the province of Cordova, were also founded independently at the end of 1892, but having partially failed, they were put under the protection of the association, and have been assisted with money subsidies, seeds, and machines. It is interesting to note that the first Jewish settlement was in 1889 by a number of families with small savings, who were fraudulently taken out there, robbed of their money, and finally abandoned by an unscrupulous speculator. Part of them ultimately settled on the Argentine Palacios colony, afterwards bought by the association, and converted into the colony of "Moisesville."

Origin of
"Moises-
ville."

Areas of
crops, 7,300
tons of wheat
= 30,000*l.*,
or 7 per cent.
on capital
invested.
Distribution
of 1893,
excellent
crop.

The area under crops is large, wheat alone having 17,250 acres (7,294 hectares), which, at an average yield of 1 ton per $2\frac{1}{2}$ acres (1 hectare), will give 7,300 tons, representing a value of 30,000*l.*—even at the very low price of last season*—or 7 per cent. on the capital so far invested.

Food
allowances to
colonists.

This year the association is giving the colonists three-fourths of the whole crop, one quarter only being retained to pay the amortisation of the expensive machines, &c., so that they will have a large sum in hand, as the harvest is abundant and not damaged by locusts. Liberal allowances for the purchase of food are granted to them until the first crop is harvested, after which they have to support themselves, only paying to the association after every harvest whatever each family or individual can afford.

Allotment of
lands, oxen,
implements,
&c.

The association undertakes to give each family about 190 acres of land, according to numbers, 8 to 12 oxen, 2 ploughs, 2 harrows, a house and food until the land is yielding crops. One of the greatest difficulties of colonisation is the impossibility of obtaining sufficient yoke of oxen for ploughing, of which 4 to 6 are required by every family, and the same with milch cows.

Impossibility
of obtaining
oxen and
cows in
sufficient
quantities.

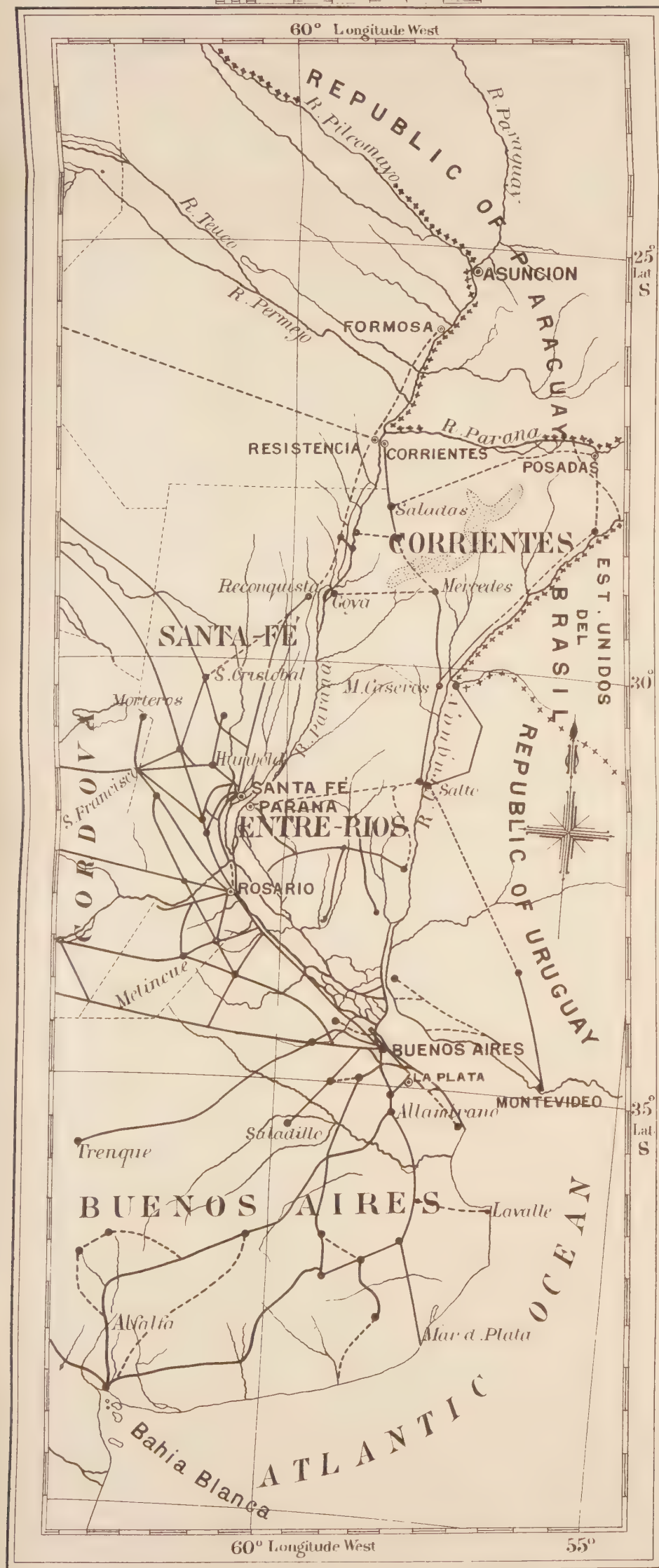
The Director of the colonies has now started a farm to tame cattle and acquire the requisite large supply both of oxen and cows, which is an essential preliminary to the settlement of more families. There is a Central Committee in St. Petersburg, with branches all over Russia, who select the most deserving Jews recommended to their notice for emigration to the Argentine Republic.

Recruiting
Jews in
Russia.

* See Report No. 1283, Annual Series, on Agriculture.

POSITION OF PROVINCES.

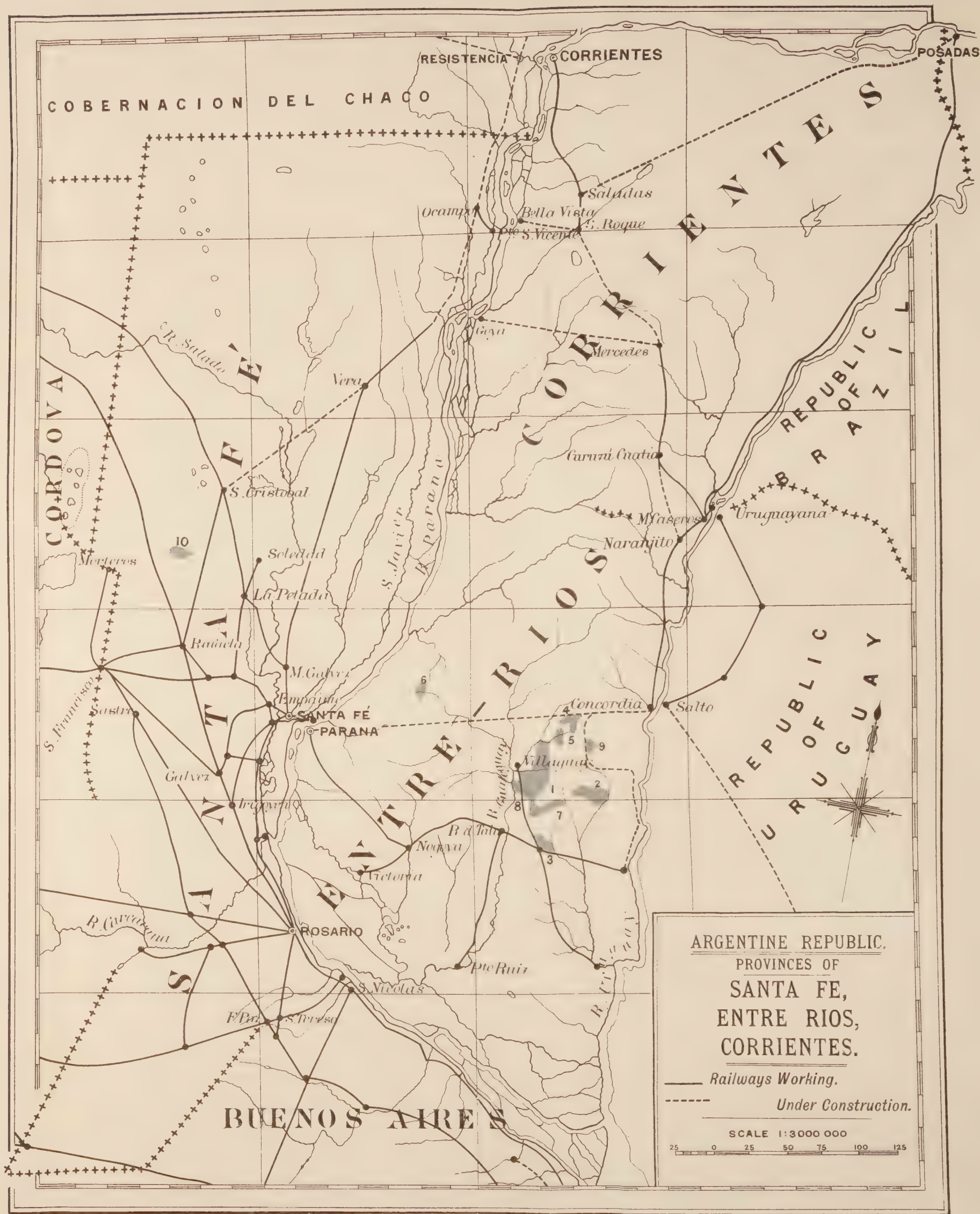
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POSITION OF EASTERN PROVINCES OF ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

Argentine Republic Area, area	1,212,600 sq. miles.
Province of Buenos Ayres „	186 826 „
„ Entre Rios „	45,274 „
„ Santa Fe „	78,949 „

BARON HIRSCH'S JEWISH COLONIES (Shown in Blue).



COLONIES IN ENTRE RIOS.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| No. | No. |
| 1. Clara (Balvanera). | 6. Zeballos (Estancia Cattle and Charcoal Woods). |
| 2. San Antonio (eastern half). | 7. Land for Colonisation. |
| 3. Basavelbaso (being colonised). | 8. San Gregorio Vigo (being colonised). |
| 4. San José (Estancia). | 9. Palmar (for vines and agriculture). |
| 5. Land for Colonisation. | 10. Moisesville. (in Prov. of Santa Fe.) |

LANDS OF JEWISH COLONISATION ASSOCIATION.

Area	50 sq. leagues in Prov. Entre Rios.
„	4 1/2 „ „ Santa Fe.
„	9 „ „ Buenos Ayres.
Total area	63 1/2 sq. leagues in Argentine Republic.

After a colony has been properly organised local self-government is introduced. A council with several members is appointed, of which two or three, according to the size of the colony, are chosen by election from among the colonists themselves, and one is the resident controller named by the association. System of government in colonies.

This council meets every day and determines the work that each colonist has to perform, when all have to take a part for the common welfare. It also regulates the distribution of machines, transport, building, public health, and the difficult question of meat. Local Council.

The duty of the controller is to look after the property of the association, to distribute the food subsidies to each family, to act as its legal representative in all dealings with the local authorities and private persons, and later on to collect the debts due by the colonists to the association. He is supposed to control the harvesting operations and to record the result of every man's crop, which eventually determines what proportion each must yearly pay in part settlement of his past indebtedness. Controller's duties.
Colonists' repayments

This sketch of Baron Hirsch's great scheme for the deliverance of the Jewish race from oppression cannot but excite much interest in the whole world, where philanthropic enterprises, though often evolved in the theorist's brain, seldom attain such practical and tangible results.

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1893.

MISCELLANEOUS SERIES.

N^o. 271.

REPORTS ON SUBJECTS OF GENERAL AND
COMMERCIAL INTEREST.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

REPORT FOR THE YEAR 1892

ON THE

PLUM TRADE IN BOSNIA.

REFERENCE TO PREVIOUS REPORT, Miscellaneous Series No. 193.

*Issued during the Recess and Presented to both Houses of Parliament
by Command of Her Majesty.*

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[C. 6856-19.]

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AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

SERAJEVO.

Consul-General Freeman to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord, *Serajevo, December 19, 1892.*
I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith a Report on the
Plum Trade in Bosnia for the Year 1892.

I have, &c.
(Signed) EDW. B. FREEMAN.

Report on the Plum Trade in Bosnia for the Year 1892.

ABSTRACT of Contents.

	PAGE
Inferior crop in 1892	1
Estimated quantity of crop	1
Sums realised by sale	2
Increase in cultivation	2

The plum crop of 1892, as regards both quality and quantity, was a very inferior one. In quantity it hardly exceeded half an average crop, and the quality was affected by blight and by the inordinate heat of the weather in the months of July and August. The average size of the plums was good, and about half the crop was consequently classed under the first two qualities—that is to say, 70 to 85 plums to the half kilo. (1·10 lb.), but in spite of their size they appear to have been deficient in flesh, and also would not keep.

The total amount of dried plums available this autumn for exportation was not estimated at more than 130,000 quintals (12,795 tons), and yet the demand was limited and prices low, and very few foreign purchasers were to be seen on the Brika market. This was, no doubt, in part owing to the difficulties of

exportation caused by the sanitary measures everywhere in force to prevent the spread of the cholera, but also in consequence of the inferior quality of the fruit. Fortunately there was rather a better demand than of late years from the United States of America, and this tended somewhat to keep up prices.

Up to the end of October, I am told, not more than 40,000 quintals (3,937 tons) had been exported.

Sums realised. The dried plums, as brought by the producers to the market of Brika, without being assorted, realised from 20 fl. to 23 fl. (1*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* to 1*l.* 18*s.* 4*d.*) per horse-load of 126 kilos. (278 lbs.). After having been assorted according to quality and size, the following prices were obtained by the local dealers:—

Description.	Per Horse-load.	
	Currency.	Sterling.
	Florins.	£ s. d.
First quality	24	2 0 0
Second „	23	1 18 4
Third „	22	1 16 8
Fourth „	21	1 15 0

These prices, however, were even better than those obtainable at Vienna, where Bosnian plums, including freight from Brika, were only selling at about 10*d.* per horse-load more than the prices quoted above.

Cultivation. The cultivation of the plum, fostered as it is by the local Government, increases in Bosnia from year to year, whereas in the neighbouring province of Slavonia, which was formerly a formidable rival in this article of commerce, the cultivation of the plum tree seems to be rapidly on the decline. In the three chief plum-producing districts of Syrmia, Virovitica, and Pozega more than 1,500 acres of plum orchards have been cleared and laid down in pasture during the past five years, and the total annual production of raw fruit in Slavonia does not now exceed 650,000 quintals (63,973 tons). Already in the year 1885 only 2,840 quintals (280 tons) of dried plums were produced in Slavonia, and five years later—that is to say, in 1890—the production had fallen to 630 quintals (62 tons). During the same period the quantity of “bestilj” produced (a kind of plum jam made without sugar) fell from 13,230 quintals to 7,400 quintals (1,305 tons to 730 tons).

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AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

BUDA-PESTH.

Mr. Milbanke to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Buda-Pesth, April 21, 1893.

I HAVE the honour to inform your Lordship that the Hungarian Minister of Agriculture has, in view of the importance of agricultural statistics, decided to publish all available information relating to landed estates in Hungary, especially as regards the number of the proprietors of estates, the number and extent of, as well as the public and private charges on the estates, and finally the mode of administration and farming, and the income derived from the same.

A pamphlet recently published by the Minister of Agriculture, which is the first of a series to be issued in future, contains statistics relating to the distribution of landed estates with regard to ownership and mode of cultivation, of which the following figures show the totals:—

Class.	Ownership.	Proportion.	Area.	
		Per cent.	Acres.	Acres.
I.	State	5·68	..	3,963,391·00
II.	Religious and Public Funds..	9·51	..	353,991·26
III.	Railways	0·10	..	59,703·82
IV.	Fideicommiss	4·79	..	3,342,596·62
V.	Districts and Parishes ..	17·69	..	12,338,930·26
VI.	Companies and Factories ..	0·89	..	617,614·61
VII.	Church Property:			
	Archbishops and Bishops—			
	a. Roman Catholic ..	1·76	{	995,027·69
	b. Greek Catholic ..			211,872·17
	c. Greek Oriental ..			18,522·48
	Chapters—			
	a. Roman Catholic ..	1·01	{	692,122·72
	b. Greek Catholic ..			11,148·42
	Abbeys, &c.	0·28		198,353·68
	Monasteries—			
	a. Roman Catholic ..	0·30	{	193,946·23
	b. Calugers.			12,601·08
	Protestant Church Funds—			
	a. Calvinists	0·06	{	35,904·50
	b. Lutherans			4,014·77
	Unitarians	..		1,179·02
	Church Communities—			
	a. Roman Catholics ..	1·22	{	302,855·13
	b. Greek Catholics ..			165,426·54
	c. Greek Orientals ..			117,134·92
	d. Calvinists			171,773·29
	e. Lutherans			81,411·06
	f. Unitarians			13,897·13
	g. Jews			2,066·10
				3,229,256·93
VIII.	Educational institutions:			
	State High Schools	0·27	{	29,186·22
	State and Parish Schools ..			19,913·60
	Roman Catholic Schools ..			57,339·03
	Greek Oriental Schools ..			12,685·67
	Calvinist Schools			29,121·51
	Lutheran Schools			14,464·67
	Greek Catholic Schools ..			24,836·52
	Unitarian Schools			1,348·29
	Jewish			192·55
	Joint Protestant			56·80
				189,144·86
	Total	34·56	..	24,094,629·36
	Land in private hands ..	65·44	..	45,631,540·74
	Grand total	..	..	69,726,170·10

DISTRIBUTION of Area as to different Branches of Cultivation.

Description.	Proportion.		Area.
	Per Cent.		Acres.
Arable land	41·35		28,833,044·03
Gardens	1·23		857,540·05
Meadows	10·52		7,335,779·06
Pasture land	13·22		9,214,128·59
Reeds	0·32		219,115·14
Vineyards	1·22		849,996·30
Forests	26·84		18,722,080·26
Uncultivated	5·30		3,694,615·04

LATEST Official Publication as to the Yield of the Crops of 1892.

Articles.	Area.		Total Crop.
	Acres.		Tons.
Autumn wheat	7,226,602·77		3,369,848·82
Spring	847,721·33		133,517·73
Wheat and rye mixed	351,849·13		15,844·58
Autumn rye	2,655,286·54		1,123,377·72
Spring	81,062·58		80,557·38
Autumn barley	200,244·05		101,357·53
Spring	2,380,514·42		1,042,609·48
Maize	5,166,195·20		2,978,559·10
Oats	2,482,696·79		963,227·59
Potatoes	1,129,962·05		2,729,427·59
Sugar root	179,273·61		1,315,353·20
Tobacco	100,051·62		52,732·86
Roots for feeding	323,696·99		2,957,521·92
Clover	735,673·81		1,158,930·40

NOTE.—The above figures have been calculated at the rate of—

1 toeh = 1·4224 acres;

1 kilo. 2·204 lbs.

I have, &c.
(Signed) RALPH MILBANKE.

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AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

SERAJEVO.

Consul-General Freeman to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord, *Serajevo, December 18, 1893.*
I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith a Report on the
Plum Trade of Bosnia for the current year.
I have, &c.
(Signed) EDW. B. FREEMAN.

Report on the Plum Trade of Bosnia for the Year 1893.

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The year 1893 has been a disastrous one for the plum trade in Bosnia. The winter of 1892-93 in these provinces was the severest and longest on record. The frost commenced on the 5th December, 1892, and continued without interruption till the 22nd of February, 1893. At Serajevo as much as 60° Fahr. of frost were registered, and in the Posavina the mercury is said to have fallen so low as 37° Centigrade, which is equal to 66° Fahr. of frost. There were also at intervals during this period very heavy falls of snow.

The plum trees, especially in the low-lying lands, suffered immensely from this severe weather, and it is reckoned that throughout the province at least one-third of the trees perished. Plum trees destroyed by the cold.

In the neighbourhood of Brčka, I am told, not a tree is left, and in the Posavina alone the loss is estimated at not less than half a million trees. Those that survived are so mutilated and injured by the frost and snow that it will be many years before they are again in full bearing.

Consequent
loss to the
country.

The average annual produce of a plum tree is about 20 okes (55 $\frac{3}{8}$ lbs.) of fresh fruit, of 500,000 trees, therefore, 10,000,000 okes, which will yield about 3,000 metric quintals of dried fruit. Reckon this at 20 florins (33s. 4d.) per quintal and we obtain the sum of 600,000 fl. (50,000*l.*) as the average annual loss in the Posavina alone until the frozen trees have been replaced and the new ones are in full bearing, which, even if no time is lost in replanting, will require a period of not less than 10 years.

Crop of 1893.

The plum trees in Bosnia, it is said, never yield a good crop two consecutive years, and as the crop of 1892 in the lowlands was very abundant, it was, as might be expected, apart from the injury done to the trees in winter, a very indifferent one this year. On the other hand, on the uplands, where the trees had suffered much less from the severity of the winter, the crop was so abundant that the trees were breaking down under the weight of the fruit. The summer in Bosnia was so wet and cool that it was feared the fruit would be of inferior quality, but a succession of hot days at the end of August and beginning of September came just in time to bring the fruit to maturity and to develop the saccharine matter and flavour for which the Bosnian plum is so justly renowned. The gathering of the plums began this year nearly a month later than usual, and the first lots of dried fruits appeared on the market only about the middle of September instead of the middle of August. Setting aside the deficiency caused by the destruction of so many trees, this year's crop may be regarded as a fair average one in quantity and a superior one in quality, both as regards size, sweetness, and flavour.

ccs.

The crop having also been good in other plum-producing countries as Slavonia, Servia, France, &c., it was feared prices would be low, and such was in fact the case for the lots first brought to the market at Brčka. Prices however soon rose, partly owing to the superior quality of the fruit and partly on account of the deficiency in the supply caused by the destruction of so many trees. The price paid in the autumn at Brčka to the producers for unassorted fruit averaged 14 florins (23s. 4d.) per horse load of 100 okes (278 lbs.), and the assorted fruit is now fetching from 9 florins to 22 florins (15s. to 36s. 8d.) per 100 okes, according to quality.

Amount
available for
exportation.
French
drying-ovens
not much in
use.

The total amount available for exportation this year is not estimated at more than 200,000 metric quintals (19,684 tons).

In spite of the evident advantages of the French drying-ovens introduced by the local government, and specially alluded to in my report on the plum trade of this province for the year 1890, they do not seem to make way with the native population. Their own primitive ovens dry the fruit, if not so well, in half

the time, and what to a Bosnian peasant is the first consideration, with less trouble and attention. The French Consul for Bosnia, Monsieur Dallemagne, who visited the Posavina in November expressly to acquire information regarding the plum trade, assures me that the French oven in Brčka had not even been lighted this autumn, while the native ovens were all in full vigour.

A railway bridge over the Save, which will connect Brčka Construction via Gunja and Vinkovce with the Hungarian State lines, is now of railway bridge over the Save at Brčka. in course of construction and will be completed next summer. This will effect some reduction in freights, which cannot but benefit the plum trade of Bosnia.

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1894.

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REPORT ON THE
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AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

SERAJEVO.

Consul-General Freeman to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Serajevo, February 6, 1894.

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith a Report on the Sugar Industry in Bosnia.

I have, &c.
(Signed) EDW. B. FREEMAN.

Report on the Sugar Industry in Bosnia.

ABSTRACT of Contents.

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The total annual consumption of all kinds of sugar in Bosnia and the Herzegovina is variously estimated at 30,000 quintals to 45,000 quintals. I believe myself even the latter figure to be far below the mark, but in the absence of any official statistics it is impossible to state the amount with accuracy.

A sugar factory has been lately established by the Local Government at Usora near Doboj, on the Brod-Serajevo line of railway. The buildings were commenced in the month of June, 1892, and in the month of January, 1893, the factory was already in full work. The establishment covers an area of about 12 acres and has been built on the most approved principles. The machinery is of the best kind with all the latest improvements. Up to the present only crushed sugar, known in commerce under (1689)

the name of "Pilé," has been produced, but now a refinery has been added to the establishment, and during the coming season loaf sugar will also be produced.

Raw materials all native products.	All the raw materials employed in the factory are native products. The beets are grown in the surrounding districts, the lime is burnt in the neighbouring valleys of the Spreča and the Usora, and the coal is drawn from the mines of Kreka by Tuzla.
Workmen and wages.	300 workmen are daily employed on the establishment, nearly all of whom, including many overseers, are natives of Bosnia. They distinguish themselves by their intelligence, sobriety, orderly conduct, punctuality and diligence. About 1,800 fl. (150 <i>l.</i>) are paid weekly in wages, and in case of sickness the workmen receive medical attendance and medicines gratis. A sick fund is also being gradually formed for the support of those who are temporarily or permanently disabled.
Daily consumption of beets.	The factory was built for a daily consumption of 2,000 quintals to 2,400 quintals of beets, but it is found that even a larger quantity can be consumed. Depôts have been established at seven different stations on the Brod-Serajevo line, where the growers deliver their beets, whence they are brought as occasion requires to the factory.
Production of sugar and prices.	During the past year 26,000 quintals (2,559 tons) of sugar (Pilé) were produced. The quality seems to fully meet the requirements of the trade. The wholesale price at the factory was 24 fl. (40 <i>s.</i>) per quintal, and the retail price in the country is 38 kreuzers per kilogram, which is equivalent to 3½ <i>d.</i> per lb.
Cultivation of the beet.	Great difficulty was experienced at first in introducing the cultivation of the beet among the native peasants, and it was only effected by the greatest perseverance on the part of the authorities, and at a considerable cost to the Government. Implements were distributed gratis, instruction in the mode of culture was imparted by skilled agriculturists, and promises of purchase at remunerative rates were made to the growers. In spite of all these inducements, however, only 170 hectares (420 acres) were sown with beet the first year, which produced about 23,000 quintals of roots. In the following year, that is to say 1892, the extent of land sown had risen to 860 hectares (2,125 acres), which produced about 160,000 quintals of beets; and during the past year no less than 2,700 hectares (6,672 acres) were sown and over 350,000 quintals of beets delivered to the factory, being an increase of more than 1,600 per cent. in the course of 3 years, so that the success of the enterprise seems now to be fully assured. More than 30,000 <i>l.</i> were paid last season for the purchase of beets, and the peasants, therefore, finally realize the advantages of this branch of agriculture.
Cattle-feeding on the refuse.	Another benefit to the country from the introduction of this crop will be feeding and fattening of cattle. In this the Government is also setting an example. About 50 per cent. of the beets used at the factory are returned to the peasants in the form of parings and refuse, and this makes an excellent fodder for cattle. Stall feeding and fattening of cattle for the market has never been

practised in Bosnia and the Herzegovina, but will now probably through the cultivation of the beet be gradually resorted to. Manuring of the fields is also very little practised in this country, but the absolute necessity of so doing to obtain heavy beet crops will be recognised by the peasants and necessitate the stall-feeding of cattle, which will not only be another source of profit to the agriculturist, but will tend likewise to improve the breed of cattle by inculcating the habit of giving them more care and better food during the winter months than has hitherto been the custom.

Finally, the establishment of this sugar factory will be no inconsiderable benefit to the revenue of these provinces. The excise on sugar is 11 fl. (18s. 4d.) per quintal, and the total amount, therefore, paid to the local exchequer for the 26,000 quintals produced last year was 286,000 fl. (23,800*l.*). Excise paid by sugar factory.

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BELGIUM.

ANTWERP.

Consul-General de C. Perry to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord, *Antwerp, September 30, 1892.*
HAVING ascertained that an Agricultural Exhibition would be held at Ghent in the month of April next, I requested Mr. Vice-Consul Hallett to furnish me with a Report on the subject, a copy of which Report I herewith have the honour to enclose your Lordship.

I have, &c.
(Signed) G. R. DE COURCY PERRY.

Report on the Agricultural Exhibition about to be held at Ghent.

ABSTRACT of Contents.

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The Royal Agricultural and Botanical Society of Ghent are ^{Date of} making arrangements for their international exhibition, which is ^{exhibition.} to be held at the Casino, in this town, from April 16 to April 23 next year. This society, which was founded in 1808, has for its object the spread of botanical knowledge, and perfecting the cultivation of indigenous plants.

- First exhibition.** Commencing as a local enterprise, its first exhibition was held in 1809, when about 50 plants were exhibited. The only prize consisted of a silver medal, which was won by the secretary of the society, Mr. L. Le Bègue, a lawyer, for his "Erica Triflora." Competition, then, as now, was not restricted to professional horticulturists. These exhibitions continued, increasing in importance and interest, year by year, until 1818, when King William I. of the Netherlands granted it the title of "Royal Society," and presented it with three magnificent palm trees.
- Growth.** Starting as they did in 1808 in a little coffee-house, named "In Fascati," at the Copure, Ghent, these exhibitions had to be moved from one building to another, until in 1827, by a resolution of May 10, the town council placed the great hall of the town-house at the disposal of the society for their annual show, and on December 31, 1832, the Burgomaster, Joseph van Crombrughe, was elected president. At length, however, under fresh impulse, the town-house accommodation was found to be insufficient, and in 1836 a beautiful and spacious building, named the Casino, was erected, which still affords sufficient accommodation for all requirements.
- Awards.** The first Belgian International Exhibition of Flowers and Shrubs was held at the Casino in 1837, when more than 5,000 plants were exhibited. Twelve gold medals, 20 silver medals, and 32 bronze medals were awarded, and a banquet was given to 320 guests of all nationalities, a fitting forerunner of the numerous floral festivities which have succeeded it.
- Quinquennial.** In 1839 it was decided that these international exhibitions should be held at Ghent every five years. In 1843 Her Majesty Queen Victoria, the Prince Consort, and the King and Queen of the Belgians honoured the society by their presence, and inscribed their names in the "Livre d'Or."
- Bright prospects.** Thus matters have continued to the present time, and lovers of botany are looking forward with unabated zeal and unflagging interest to the exhibition of next spring, which promises to surpass in magnificence all that has yet been seen. Endless varieties of orchids, palms, camelias, azaleas, rhododendrons, aroids, conifers, ferns, and other plants from all parts of Europe are to be exhibited. America is to contribute, and promise is made of some beautiful growths from the Congo.
- Specimens.** Specimens for botanical instruction are asked for, as well as illustrations of the effects of different manures. Prizes of medals and rich works of art are offered by the King and Queen of Belgium, also by various societies and notabilities, amounting in total value to between 35,000 fr. and 40,000 fr.
- Jury.** The jury, composed of about 130 members of all nationalities, unconnected with the town of Ghent, are to meet on April 14 next at 10 A.M. These members will be divided into groups according to their special aptitudes and knowledge, in order that the prizes may be awarded on the intrinsic merits of the plants judged from critical standpoints, and every precaution will be taken to ensure thorough impartiality.

M. Ernest Benary, of Erfurt, honorary member of the society, offers a special prize of 500 fr. to the exhibitor who shall carry off in the competition the greatest number of medals, works of art, &c. ^{Accumulative prize.}

Visitors are expected in great numbers from all parts, and the committee intend leaving nothing undone which would add to the general attraction. With this object, as also for the proper protection of the plants, a space of 2,625 square metres of the Casino grounds is to be covered in, which, in addition to the permanent building, will afford ample accommodation. It is hoped that English visitors will be numerous, it having been recently stated by a leading committee man that there are in England more amateur lovers of botany than in all Germany, France, and Belgium combined. ^{Visitors.}

Several eminent English horticulturists are expected to be on the jury.

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BRAZIL.

REPORT ON THE

BAR AT RIO GRANDE DO SUL.

*Issued during the Recess and Presented to both Houses of Parliament
by Command of Her Majesty.*

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BRAZIL.

RIO GRANDE DO SUL.

Consul Hearn to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord, *Rio Grande do Sul, August 1, 1892.*

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith a Report on the Rio Grande do Sul Bar.

Many years appear to have elapsed since any report was made on this subject, which is of such importance, politically and commercially, to this large State, and which was, in former years, such an obstacle and a source of danger to Shipping.

I have endeavoured, therefore, to prove to the best of my ability that the character of the Rio Grande Bar has entirely changed for the better, although there is still urgent need for the improvements which the Government propose to carry out and which will probably be soon recommenced.

I trust that the Report may be found of interest both to the ships of Her Majesty's Navy in these waters, and to that portion of the British Mercantile Navy trading, or which may trade in the future, to the ports in the State of Rio Grande do Sul.

I have, &c.

(Signed) WALTER R. HEARN.

Report on the Rio Grande do Sul Bar.

ABSTRACT of Contents.

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Retrospective. The saying "Give a dog a bad name and hang him" has never had truer application than in the case of the Rio Grande do Sul bar, and I am surprised that no attempt appears to have been made to prove that the bad character which the bar undoubtedly and rightly bore, until some five years ago, has since that time been wearing off and improving to such an extent that I believe to-day, as bars go, it is worthy of high praise.

Indeed, I fear it is this good character which has prevented its appealing so eloquently as it did in former days on behalf of the demands of the people of this State for public works for its improvement just at the time when difficulties have arisen about the execution of the works and they are in danger of being postponed indefinitely.

But the bar for the last two years has been quite good enough for all ordinary purposes, and, although the cry for improvement has been certainly loud and long, the absolute and urgent necessity for it which doubtless exists has not been so forcibly apparent during the good behaviour of the object itself.

The present report, however, has in view the self improvement of the bar which has taken place since 1889, its satisfactory state at the present time and the consideration of what may be expected in the future.

Obstacle to trade.

The bar in former years used to be a great obstacle to the trade of the ports inside it. Vessels were often delayed a month or more outside before there was water enough for them to enter, and consequently insurance companies charged enormous premiums on account of the extraordinary risk.

Now this is never the case, and since 1889 there has been only one occasion when, owing to the weather, the bar was impracticable for six consecutive days, from July 1 to July 6, 1891, and even then vessels of light draught up to 11 feet 3 inches were allowed to cross the bar on five out of the six days.

Effects of wind and tide.

On some days vessels were allowed to come in drawing more water than those that were allowed to go out, while on other days the contrary was the case. This is owing to the fact, for which the pilots make due allowance, that with wind against tide or in towing against both the pitch of a vessel is greater than in contrary circumstances.

Entry and exit of vessels.

The entry and exit of vessels is entirely under the control of the captain of the bar, a naval officer appointed by the Government, and his staff of pilots, and no vessel is allowed to move except under their direct guidance, and they use such caution that if their directions are followed there is no more risk than in entering any other harbour.

Principal landmarks.

The principal landmarks at the mouth of the Rio Grande are the lighthouse, a tall brick-red pointed column, in $32^{\circ} 7\frac{1}{4}'$ S. and $52^{\circ} 7\frac{1}{2}'$ W. The light, which is elevated 104 feet above sea level, is visible about 16 miles. It is a white revolving light, showing a steady light for 30 seconds, and then a flash and a short eclipse every six seconds for the other 30 seconds, thus completing the revolution in a minute.

A short distance from the lighthouse to the south is a square white tower, from the top of which signals are made to vessels outside the bar.

Vessels coming from the north will probably first sight the two towers of the church at Sao José do Norte rising above the sand hills which lie between the town and the sea.

The plan of operations at the bar is, shortly, as follows: At daybreak the bar-boats go out, one being stationed inside the mouth of the river the other on the bar itself, and, when occasion requires, or when, for want of wind or other cause, the bar-boats cannot go out, a Government steamer goes out to the bar with a pilot on board to direct an incoming vessel, steaming in in advance of her.

Plan of
operations

Should the weather not permit of this the bar is considered impracticable, and no movement of shipping is permitted.

The bar-boats being anchored, so soon as a vessel heaves in sight the signalman at the white tower makes signals to the bar-boat as to the depth of water on the bar, and then hoists a red flag on one staff, which means that the bar is practicable, and on the other the draught of water vessels are allowed to cross the bar in, or more usually repeats the draught signalled by the deepest vessel approaching the bar.

In the same way the vessels wishing to go out over the bar hoist their draught of water, and the signalman on shore on learning what water there is on the bar hoists the draught on which vessels will be allowed to go out, but generally not more water than the draught of the deepest vessel. Thus on July 11 of the present year with 20 palms of water on the bar and the only vessel wishing to go out being the American schooner "Jefferson," drawing 15 palms, signals to go out in 15 palms were hoisted on the outward signal staff, which is on the shore by the pilot station.

Only inward signals are made from the white tower, which is called the "Atalaia."

Pilots do not, under ordinary circumstances, board inward or outward bound vessels, but the boat on the bar always contains a chief pilot, a second pilot, and an apprentice, who do duty for a week at a time.

The master of a vessel as he approaches the bar must watch the red flag on a short staff the pilot holds in his hand, and steer accordingly as he waves it to port or starboard or holds it upwards steady. Having passed the outer bar boat the eye must then be kept on the inner boat, from which a pilot gives similar directions, or, if the inner boat be not in its place, the pilot in the outer boat must still be watched. The vessel then reaches the river and, having been anchored, is visited by the authorities and given a river pilot to take her to her destination.

The same directions must be observed by a vessel going to sea over the bar.

A special set of signal flags is used for the bar signals. These flags consist of a red, a white, and a blue burgee or pennant, and

a red, a white, and a blue flag. These flags are, as a rule, hoisted on the tower and on the bar-boat too close together, and the colours are much washed out and faded.

The international code of signals is in use at the signal station, and vessels having any communication to make desiring information, or not being able to distinguish the bar signals, should signal in that code.

Telegraphic
communi-
cation.
Improvement
and present
practic-
ability.

There is telegraphic communication from the pilot station with Rio Grande do Sul, and therefrom with the whole world.

The improvement and present practicability of the bar will be evident from these tables, especially if we take as examples two such vessels as H.M.S. "Beagle" and "Basilisk," drawing 13 feet 2 inches, or 18 palms.

The danger of crossing the Rio Grande bar, on account of the excellent service of pilots and their rules and regulations, is now reduced to a minimum, as the following list of casualties since January, 1889, will show :—

Casualties.

January 6, 1889.—The Brazilian brig "S. Antonio," drawing 14 palms, entered in tow of the tug "Venus," there being 15 palms of water on the bar, with ordinary waves and a strong outward current. Not being able to stem the current with a head wind, she went into the bank, and remained there some time until the tug towed her off into deep water.

January 18, 1890.—The Spanish schooner "Ballester," while being towed in struck on the bar, damaging her rudder and making some water, but was towed to the anchorage.

The British schooner "Ann Clark," in tow of the "Manoel Diabo," also struck on the bar on this day, there being a strong outward current, and the water fell very rapidly.

May 31, 1890.—The British schooner "Natalie" was discovered at daybreak on the south point, and being a very weak vessel she broke in two, having run ashore during the night in a fog.

July 21, 1890.—The British steamer "Cometa" stuck on the bar for a short time, owing to the water having fallen rapidly. Not being able to cross the bar for want of water she returned outside.

July 24, 1890.—A Norwegian schooner in tow of the "Lima Duarte" stuck on the bank for some time for the same reason, and was towed outside.

November 30, 1890.—A Norwegian barque while being towed in stuck on the bar for some time for the same reason, and being towed off remained outside.

This is the record of casualties on the Rio Grande bar for three years and six months, and all of them occurred during the first two years.

The number of vessels which crossed the bar during that period was—

Year.	Inwards.	Outwards.
	Number.	Number.
1889.. .. .	494	490
1890.. .. .	528	500
1891.. .. .	577	583

From this it will be seen that the number of casualties in proportion to the shipping is very small indeed, and I doubt if there are many rivers with a bar that can show so clean a record.

Another proof of the great improvement in the bar is the fact that the average tonnage of British ships crossing the bar, which was 293 tons in 1890, increased to 385 tons in 1891, and to 589 tons in the first half of 1892. This is entirely due to the good state of the bar, which permitted large steamers of 2,000 tons, drawing 14 feet and 15 feet of water, to cross it in 1891 and 1892, and these steamers, which came here first under a special contract with railway material, are now beginning to be regular traders to this port. Average tonnage of vessels.

That the bar shall remain good is, therefore, of great importance, and whether any public works for its improvement are undertaken or not its future is a subject of much anxiety. Importance of maintaining present state.

It appears as if the course of the river had of late years worked for itself the most direct and natural opening into the sea, and, this being so, there is not so much fear of its rapidly closing up or varying, as was the case when there were two openings approached by circuitous channels. The effect of the winds also has been beneficial since the present opening was formed; the north-east winds have had much more effect, causing a strong rush of water from the river over the bar, which appears to deepen the channel and keep the sand bar from increasing. River working its own course.

Although there is always more water on the bar when the wind is from a southern quarter, the bar is probably kept in a better normal and average condition by north-easterly winds, which are the prevailing winds here, and so long as the present state of things continues the bar will probably undergo but little change in the near future, and whatever change there may be, unless anything unusual happens, may be expected to take place gradually.

As I am finishing this report I am able to give the soundings on the bar for July as a further proof of the steady and satisfactory state of the bar. The soundings were on five days from 17 palms to 19 palms, on 22 days from 20 palms to 22 palms, and on 4 days no soundings were taken. Latest soundings and charts.

It appears, therefore, as if the bed of the river and the bar, which now lies in a straight line with its course, had settled into a steady and little varying condition, which encourages the hope above mentioned, that in the near future there will be little alteration in the depths of water on the bar, except those that are caused by the direction and strength of the wind.

The Bar Commissioners, whose duties in this State are some-

what similar to those of our Trinity House, usually draw up a chart of the river, &c., every three years. The last chart, however, was drawn in 1889, and although, I believe, a new one is being prepared, it is not likely to be finished for some time.

I must, therefore, content myself with appending to this report the chart of 1889*, which shows the position of the bar much as it is to-day, and very little change has taken place in the surroundings.

* Sent, with Tables of Observations, to the Hydrographic Department.

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B U L G A R I A .

SUMMARY OF THE
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BULGARIA.

SOFIA.

Mr. Lowther to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Sofia, November 5, 1892.

IN connection with the Agricultural and Industrial Exhibition at Philippopolis, an Austrian private firm recently published a volume of Statistics dealing with the Imports and Exports of Bulgaria since 1877, and I have extracted therefrom, and put into a convenient form for reference, the principal points in connection with this trade which may be of interest to English firms trading with Bulgaria.

This abstract I have the honour to transmit herewith.

I have, &c.

(Signed) GERARD LOWTHER.

Summary of the Trade of Bulgaria for the Years 1877-91.

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Values imported from and exported to various countries 1877-90	6

The following is a rough sketch showing the development of the trade of Bulgaria during the last 15 years, and proves that notwithstanding the many trials the principality has undergone it has made wonderful progress. The union with Eastern Roumelia and the strengthening of the present régime have opened up a new and prosperous era.

(1425)

A 2

Imports and
exports.

The year 1877 was a dismal one, and Bulgarian imports only amounted to 1,200,000*l.*, and exports to 920,000*l.* The political troubles, the war, the interruption of the navigation of the Danube all tended to paralyse any attempt at commercial operations. It was consequently far worse than the preceding years, and this told its tale in the following years. Bulgaria being practically dependent on its cereals, the years 1880 and 1881, which produced good harvests, gave high figures of importation; the following years were satisfactory until in 1885, which promised to surpass all the former years, a check was put on trade in general by the outbreak of the war. Thanks to the unsettled condition of the country this lasted till 1887, but in 1891 the exports exceeded 3,200,000*l.*, and the imports 2,800,000*l.*, so that within 15 years Bulgarian commerce was increased almost three-fold.

British
position.

Among the countries trading with Bulgaria, Austria-Hungary has always occupied the first rank, with the exception of the years 1885, 1886, 1887, and 1888, when Great Britain took the first place. Bulgaria's exports, nearly the whole of which consist of cereals, go principally to Turkey, Great Britain, and France; in 1889 these amounted to 2,000,000*l.*

Statistics.

The following figures speak for themselves. All statistics relating to the years before and including 1885 refer merely to Northern Bulgaria; those relating to the subsequent years refer to Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia.

Year.	Imported from.			Exported to.		
	Country.	Sterling.	Total Sterling.	Country.	Sterling.	Total Sterling.
1879	...	£	£	...	£	£
1880	...	...	1,285,408	...	...	803,712
	Roumania ...	462,340	1,923,942	...	...	1,824,723
	Austria-Hungary ...	456,448				
	Great Britain ...	317,376				
	Turkey ...	206,344				
	Italy ...	144,264				
1881	...	...	2,338,684	...	...	1,272,796
	Austria-Hungary ...	588,848				
	Great Britain ...	542,228				
	Roumania ...	340,260				
	Turkey ...	261,144				
	Italy ...	238,362				
1882	...	...	1,662,596	...	...	1,370,096
	Austria-Hungary ...	605,336		Turkey ...	346,796	
	Great Britain ...	360,856		Roumania ...	335,500	
	Turkey ...	210,596		Eastern Roumelia ...	211,128	
	Roumania ...	121,592		France ...	180,824	
	France ...	87,268		Great Britain ...	169,348	
1883	...	...	1,957,180	...	...	1,845,056
	Austria-Hungary ...	611,036		Great Britain ...	440,180	
	Great Britain ...	522,021		Turkey ...	382,864	
	Turkey ...	213,208		Roumania ...	355,608	
	Roumania ...	129,272		Eastern Roumelia ...	317,352	
	France ...	110,292		France ...	130,368	
1884	...	...	2,047,772	...	...	1,411,884
	Austria-Hungary ...	559,196		Great Britain ...	463,688	
	Great Britain ...	431,044		Turkey ...	346,220	
	Turkey ...	217,928		Eastern Roumelia ...	216,064	
	Roumania ...	155,838		Roumania ...	94,944	
	France ...	90,908		Austria-Hungary ...	61,420	
1885	...	...	1,761,608	...	...	1,794,988
	Great Britain ...	450,276		Great Britain ...	491,656	
	Austria-Hungary ...	436,520		Turkey ...	346,468	
	Turkey ...	196,528		France ...	211,448	
	Roumania ...	142,548		Eastern Roumelia ...	218,436	
	France ...	84,812		Roumania ...	140,180	
1886	...	...	2,571,412	...	...	2,016,172
	Great Britain ...	731,620		Turkey ...	1,169,420	
	Austria-Hungary ...	682,228		France ...	384,936	
	Turkey ...	448,792		Great Britain ...	185,440	
	Russia ...	143,344		Austria-Hungary ...	98,080	
	Roumania ...	131,184		Italy ...	69,864	
1887	...	...	2,589,696	...	...	1,829,888
	Great Britain ...	876,948		Turkey ...	994,424	
	Austria-Hungary ...	611,064		France ...	253,240	
	Turkey ...	383,464		Great Britain ...	232,096	
	France ...	165,800		Austria-Hungary ...	144,748	
	Russia ...	131,096		Roumania ...	24,300	
1888	...	...	2,654,496	...	...	2,567,944
	Great Britain ...	780,772		Turkey ...	1,099,904	
	Austria-Hungary ...	727,468		France ...	655,320	
	Turkey ...	394,844		Great Britain ...	411,024	
	Germany ...	175,616		Roumania ...	95,036	
	France ...	155,660		Austria-Hungary ...	105,144	
1889	...	...	2,914,768	...	...	3,223,240
	Austria-Hungary ...	899,684		Turkey ...	1,222,236	
	Great Britain ...	847,712		France ...	735,612	
	Turkey ...	391,136		Great Britain ...	503,816	
	Russia ...	181,288		Austria-Hungary ...	142,328	
	France ...	137,948		Italy ...	65,896	
1890	...	...	3,381,216	...	...	2,842,044
	Austria-Hungary ...	1,820,228		France ...	779,852	
	Great Britain ...	900,812		Turkey ...	877,128	
	Turkey ...	415,788		Great Britain ...	597,472	
	Russia ...	208,838		Austria-Hungary ...	230,020	
	Germany ...	154,612		Italy ...	61,868	

REVIEW of Principal Articles of Import into Bulgaria for the Years 1879-90.

Year.	Sugar.	Coffee.	Alcoholic Drinks, Mineral Waters, Oil.	Iron and Iron Goods.	Timber.	Cotton Goods.	Stuffs.	Ready-made Clothes.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1879 ..	51,360	20,680	50,200	47,600	16,960	122,800	236,120	32,720
1880 ..	66,920	29,280	52,200	27,440	41,000	143,080	201,840	38,920
1881 ..	76,960	36,440	124,240	39,720	53,600	231,200	285,600	38,200
1882 ..	98,440	29,960	214,200	50,360	31,760	151,560	235,480	53,560
1883 ..	102,720	33,920	203,200	52,080	40,400	247,640	319,440	54,320
1884 ..	102,440	39,640	137,120	55,360	66,080	201,040	294,800	55,600
1885 ..	53,840	41,560	124,520	54,640	74,840	182,960	294,760	51,480
1886 ..	145,960	50,680	148,920	62,520	44,240	301,800	463,600	84,080
1887 ..	42,840	50,320	104,120	133,820	54,040	313,280	525,840	69,040
1888 ..	129,520	52,000	107,960	102,400	84,720	336,760	506,800	62,400
1889 ..	155,560	48,600	187,400	130,280	77,520	360,240	548,480	70,760
1890 ..	189,840	72,920	250,120	176,520	96,000	292,080	544,120	97,600

BULGARIA.

REVIEW of Principal Articles of Export from Bulgaria for the Years 1879-90.

Year.	Wheat.	Maize.	Rye.	Barley.	Skins and Hides.	Cattle and Live Stock.	Lights, Soap, Perfumery.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1879 ..	145,640	80,080	53,920	8,960	85,200	146,600	..
1880 ..	476,040	20,960	84,160	65,840	68,920	283,480	..
1881 ..	297,760	344,680	16,680	48,280	44,720	246,680	..
1882 ..	401,040	180,000	43,880	91,200	38,920	302,720	1,280
1883 ..	604,920	330,600	34,240	49,680	39,880	479,480	240
1884 ..	416,760	169,680	48,640	35,480	35,800	350,760	2,720
1885 ..	734,200	267,760	48,920	31,760	31,760	304,360	22,040
1886 ..	983,560	108,120	42,560	32,120	38,920	270,480	31,400
1887 ..	560,080	119,840	48,160	21,640	47,080	282,280	83,960
1888 ..	1,176,840	184,840	83,560	47,760	53,480	233,520	75,400
1889 ..	1,686,320	194,840	116,880	55,240	60,880	237,240	62,760
1890 ..	1,457,560	345,840	62,360	52,560	57,160	213,200	72,080

GENERAL Review of the External Commerce of the Principality for the Years 1877-91.

IMPORTS.

Year.	Total.	Austria-Hungary.	Great Britain.	Turkey.	Roumania.
	£	£	£	£	£
1877* ...	1,200,000	...	...	...	...
1878 ...	1,707,064	...	...	...	...
1879 ...	1,285,508	...	...	...	...
1880 ...	1,928,942	456,448	817,376	206,344	462,340
1881 ...	2,338,684	588,848	542,228	261,144	340,260
1882 ...	1,662,596	605,336	360,856	210,596	121,592
1883 ...	1,967,180	611,036	522,021	213,208	129,272
1884 ...	2,047,772	559,196	481,044	217,928	155,628
1885 ...	1,761,608	426,520	450,276	196,528	142,548
1886 ...	2,571,412	682,228	731,620	448,792	131,184
1887 ...	2,589,696	611,064	876,948	333,464	116,988
1888 ...	2,654,496	727,468	780,772	394,844	88,160
1889 ...	2,914,768	899,684	847,712	391,136	93,576
1890 ...	3,381,216	1,320,228	800,812	415,736	87,368
1891* ...	3,253,924	1,319,680	639,720	400,440	...

* Approximate figures.

† Provisional figures.

EXPORTS.

Year.	Total.	Great Britain.	Turkey.	France.	Austria-Hungary.	More or less in favour of Importation.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1877 ...	920,000	...	...	...	...	+ 280,000
1878 ...	844,844	...	...	...	...	+ 862,220
1879 ...	803,712	...	...	...	...	+ 481,796
1880 ...	1,824,728	...	...	...	...	+ 604,216
1881 ...	1,272,796	...	...	...	...	+ 1,065,898
1882 ...	1,370,096	159,348	346,796	180,824	99,816	+ 292,500
1883 ...	1,845,056	440,180	382,864	130,368	88,612	+ 112,124
1884 ...	1,411,884	463,688	348,220	60,744	61,420	+ 635,884
1885 ...	1,794,888	491,656	346,468	211,448	36,628	- 33,380
1886 ...	2,016,172	185,440	1,169,420	384,936	98,080	+ 555,236
1887 ...	1,829,888	232,096	994,424	268,240	144,748	+ 759,808
1888 ...	2,567,944	411,024	1,099,904	555,320	105,144	+ 86,548
1889 ...	3,223,240	503,816	1,222,286	735,612	142,328	- 308,472
1890 ...	2,842,044	597,472	877,128	779,852	230,020	+ 539,172
1891 ...	2,842,200	671,040	685,880	970,200	125,280	+ 411,720

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CHILE AS A FIELD FOR EMIGRATION.

REFERENCE TO PREVIOUS REPORT, Miscellaneous Series No. 158.

*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty,
DECEMBER, 1893.*

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CHILE.

SANTIAGO.

Mr. J. G. Kennedy to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Santiago, October 23, 1893.

ON receipt of your Lordship's Despatch of August 10 last, I applied to the Reverend Henry Wetherall, Chaplain to the Church of England Church in Valparaiso, who, from his long residence in Chile, and from his devotion to the welfare of British subjects in this country, is the person best qualified to furnish a Report on Chile as a Field for Emigration.

I have now the honour to inclose the Report which Mr. Wetherall has been good enough to supply and in which he has, as he states, embodied on the best of his ability the results of his ten years' experience of the country.

Beyond the expression of my complete concurrence with Mr. Wetherall's remarks, I have but little to add to his exhaustive memorandum on the advantages offered in Chile to intending British emigrants.

The somewhat fantastical scheme by which President Balmaceda proposed to bring 25,000 emigrants to Chile in one year, which formed the subject of my Report of 1886, proved to be a dismal failure for all concerned. The Chilean Government have not again attempted any such experiment: they have also given up the contracted colonist system under which land was granted free on certain conditions of occupation and cultivation. Government action is now limited to a grant of money annually voted. The estimates for 1894 are charged with 3,000, under this head, which is placed at the disposal of the Society of Manufacturing Industry (*Sociedad de Fomento Fabricil*), who assist by passage orders intending emigrants approved by their Agent in Paris, and for whose special services applications have previously been made to the above society in Chile.

Speaking from case, within my knowledge, I believe that there is a limited demand for skilled artisans in the Valparaiso foundries, on the State Railways, and on big farms where machinery is used, and also for carmen, or men with good knowledge of stabling and managing horses, cows, pigs, &c.

In the Annual Report presented to Congress in August last, the Minister of Industry and Public Works states that "the service of free industrial immigration destined to assist manufacturers in obtaining from Europe the workmen they require has continued with regularity."

"During the past year, from June 27 to November 30, 197 passage orders were given by which 636 persons were assisted to emigrate from Europe, of whom 468 were adults and 168 children; of the adults 256 were men and 212 women."

I have, &c.

(Signed) J. G. KENNEDY.

Report on Chile as a Field for Emigration.

ABSTRACT of Contents.

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Suitability of
Chile as a
field for
emigration.

An uncritical glance at the map of South America is likely to create an exaggerated idea of Chile as a possible field for emigration.

From the point where the west coast line, after trending eastwards, takes an almost direct course from north to south, to Cape Horn, is a stretch of some 2,000 miles. Parallel to this coast line, about 100 miles inland, runs the summit line of the Andes, the mountains forming the backbone of South America. All the region between these far-stretching boundaries bears the name of Chile. A momentary calculation thus gives an area of 200,000 square miles, which may be doubled when the space added by the inequalities of the surface is taken into consideration.

Those who have been interested in attracting emigrants to Chile have seized upon this undoubted fact of the large extent of the country as a basis of most misleading calculations as to Chile's capacity for supporting population, and have asserted that Chile could afford maintenance to 40,000,000 or 50,000,000 of inhabitants. Such calculations are preposterous. The fact is that the size of Chile is no criterion at all of its population bearing capabilities. To make this clear it should be understood that the country is divided by nature into three almost equal sections. Each of these has special features of geographical structure and climate, which determine the capacity of each as a supporter of population. From Cape Horn for some 700 miles northwards huge rocks and mountain masses capped with snow, and fringed with glaciers, and rotting vegetation rise almost sheer out of inlets, and channels of sea water, drenched perpetually by the downpour from the clouds, which rarely break to admit a gleam of sunshine. In the cold and stormy islands of the extreme south, and on the northern shore of the Straits of Magellan are tracts suitable for sheep and cattle. Otherwise throughout the whole of this third part of Chile it is impossible to imagine the existence of other occupations than hunting and fishing.

Again, the northern section of Chile is a rainless desert, to which all means of subsistence have to be imported, and where water for drinking has to be manufactured, or brought at great cost from the mountains far inland. Here, however, are the famous nitrate grounds, rich mines of silver and copper, and even some gold in workable quantities.

The extraction of this mineral wealth certainly provides support to a not inconsiderable population, but to a population of nothing like the amount which would be required if the possible inhabitants of Chile are to be calculated in tens of millions.

The central section alone of Chile has to be taken into account when estimating the possibilities of the country as a field for emigration on a large scale. This portion of the Republic has many natural advantages. Though mountainous throughout, its highlands are interspersed with plains and valleys of great fertility, well adapted for the culture of wheat, barley, and maize, of vines, and of various kinds of fruits. There are also wide stretches of tableland and hillslope affording ample grazing ground for sheep and cattle.

The climate is singularly temperate, comfortable, and healthy. Epidemics, such as that of yellow fever, found in the same latitudes in other parts of the world, are unknown here. Visitations of cholera, it is true, sometimes have occurred, but their ravages have hitherto been little felt, except amongst those who are dirty and reckless in their habits.

The parts of the mountains which are too steep and rocky for agriculture or pasture are often rich in minerals, and the southern district of this central zone abounds near the sea coast in beds of coal of a good quality.

(1666)

Present
disposal of
population.

In this central division of Chile the main mass of the people are concentrated. It can hardly be said with truth that they are greatly inadequate to the task of developing the natural resources of the country. The land is occupied and rendered fairly productive. The mines possessing ores of a good quality are efficiently worked. The collieries already in operation have to compete keenly in disposing of their output. The existing industries make no special demand for more hands. In emergencies only is any lack of labour felt at the ports. Hence it will be apparent that statements calculated to attract colonists in large numbers to Chile must be regarded with suspicion, as probably deliberate misrepresentations made in the interests of those who gain money by the working of schemes of emigration.

Labour
market.

It cannot, however, be said with truth that there is absolutely no opening in Chile for those who are anxious to escape from over-crowded countries to a place where their labour will be appreciated. Enterprising estate owners feel that with more hands at their disposal they could develop considerably the productiveness of their farms. The undertaking of works on a large scale, such as railways and coal mines, will at once disturb the equilibrium of the labour market, and this proves that any great expansion of industries would be impracticable with a population on the present scale. The difficulty of international exchanges of money, just now so marked, has given rise to an outcry in the public press for home manufacturers to save the need of sending large sums abroad. If this outcry represents a genuine tendency of industrial progress, there will be a gradually growing demand for the introduction of labour both skilled and unskilled. But the growth of this demand will be slow—as it is, the duties imposed by Chile upon foreign goods are very heavy. Already various manufacturing experiments have been attempted. Notwithstanding the protection these have enjoyed from high tariffs they have seldom proved successful. Some have been abandoned, some scarcely pay their way. Few have given profitable returns. Still it is likely that some gradual progress will be made in this direction, and thus create a channel for at any rate a small inflow of skilled foreign workmen.

It may be noted also that the Indian population is every day receding towards the southern frontier of this central zone of Chile. Territory admirably suited for farming and the working of lumber in a most healthy climate is thus from time to time at the disposal of the Government. This is sold at a price so moderate as to give favourable opportunities for the investment of small capitals on the part of those who are enterprising and industrious, and ready to face some risks and discomforts. It is probable also that the nitrate grounds of the northern zone will, before long, be worked on a more extensive scale. If so, a further demand will thus be created for labour of a low class to load the ships at the ports, to do navvy work on the new lines of railway, and to dig up the raw material for the boiling tanks at the nitrate oficinas, as well as for skilled labour to attend to the

machinery incidental to the operations of the nitrate industry. Complaints also often come from the mineral zone of the north that the race of miners is diminishing, and that if the present low prices of silver and copper improved, it would be difficult for Chile to reap the advantage of the altered metal market on account of the scarcity of mining hands.

From the foregoing remarks it may be reasonably inferred that Chile will need in the future at any rate a moderate increase of ordinary labourers, of miners, of skilled artisans, of farmers with a little capital, and of master workmen capable of giving instruction in new industries and manufactures. Future requirements as regards labour.

The natural growth of the population ought to satisfy the progressive demand for merely manual labour—as a matter of fact, however, the labouring class of the population scarcely grows at all, and if industrial progress is to be made, either the national habits must alter, or workers from abroad will have to be introduced.

It may be said, however, decisively that this demand for unskilled labour will provide no suitable field for the British emigrant. "Have a Britisher to work on my farm?" said an experienced estate owner, who was himself an Englishman, the other day. "On no account, whatever. I have given him a fair trial. He cannot, or will not, do as much work as a Chilian farm hand. He does not do the work so well. He expects higher pay, and turns up his nose at food upon which the Chilian will thrive. In fact, he generally gives himself such airs as to become an intolerable nuisance." This represents a hard truth. Opinion of the British labourer.

Even during the emergency of harvest the pay of a farm hand is barely 2s. a day, with the addition of rations of a sort which British taste does not relish. At other seasons the wage in money drops to as low as 9d. The quality of the daily rations deteriorates in sympathy with the pay. Bred in a more bracing climate, the British labourer finds the Chilian atmosphere though comfortable, somewhat relaxing, and in the endurance of prolonged work he cannot compete with the Chilian countryman. Wages.

Better remuneration than this is, no doubt, offered to the miner. It must be borne in mind, however, that the work of the miner is carried on in places remote from the comforts of civilised life. Besides, Chilian miners form a special class. An extraordinary aptitude for the endurance incidental to their labour has been inherited by them from past generations. With them no average British workman could compete, as he would probably realise if he essayed the task of continually carrying on his head or shoulders dead weights of from 200 lbs. to 300 lbs. for several hours in the day. This is an habitual practice with those who have been brought up to toil in the mines of the Chilian mountains and deserts. Status of miners.

Much the same view has to be taken with regard to the ordinary labour connected with the extraction of nitrates. The nitrate grounds lie in a blazing desert, where, however, the effect of the sun's heat is to some extent modified by the Labour at the nitrate grounds.

exceptional coolness of the night air. The work requires powers of endurance which the Chilian undoubtedly possesses to a much greater extent than the Englishman. It is done by piece-work, and good pay can certainly be earned by the vigorous and industrious. This, however, has to be spent in truck shops, though it is just to add that the management of these is in many cases honest and considerate, and their prices even less than might be expected in a district to which every article has to be exported by sea, and carried by railways charging very high rates. Looking at the wages that might be earned, and the actual cost of living, it might be thought that some field for British emigration was lying open here. Yet this is not the case. English casual labourers already are to be found in some numbers throughout this northern district of Chile, but, whatever apparent attractions may exist at the nitrate grounds for unskilled labour, the fact remains that no Englishmen have found in this a permanent means of livelihood.

Conditions of such ordinary British workmen as are to be found at present in Chile. Such ordinary workmen of British nationality as have so far found occupation in Chile are to be met with chiefly scattered up and down the coast at the more important ports. Here they are interspersed amongst the labourers employed in loading and unloading the ships, and in the boats and launches. A very few have worked their way to fair positions as overseers in the farming estates. Some are comfortably situated as grooms and coachmen. Many, however, tramp about the country as vagrants of a singularly pitiable type.

Chile no field for the unskilled emigrant. Summing up the question of Chile as a field for emigration of unskilled British labour, it may be justly said that no Englishman who is acquainted with Chile and respects his nationality would regard the prospect of an influx of his fellow countrymen of this class otherwise than with feelings of dismay. Casual labourers who cannot make a fair livelihood in England can turn no eyes of hope to Chile.

The British settlers on farming allotments. With the working farmer, possessed of some small capital, and the skilled artisan, the case is different. Four or five years ago emigration was warmly encouraged by the Chilian Government. Their agents issued in England a circular which cannot be too strongly condemned. For a time the country was overrun by British emigrants. Many of these had deceived the Chilian agents by misrepresentations of character and qualifications as inexcusably as these agents had deceived them with the glamour of a land of promise. The British Benevolent Society in Valparaiso experienced an exasperating and an exhausting season.

Difficulties experienced by settlers. Some of the colonists, however, were made of good stuff, and settled down on small farms apportioned to them out of the land from which the Indians had recently receded. The difficulties encountered were greater than might reasonably have been expected where prairie land is given to be populated and brought under cultivation. The Indians in the neighbourhood proved perfectly harmless; but bandits made occasional raids amongst the struggling colonists, stealing cattle, and in several instances committing barbarous acts of murder.

The English settlers have reason to complain of the Chilean Government in the matter of securing their ownership of the land they have brought under cultivation by legal titles, though it must be noted that some of the English colonists have been careless with regard to the observance of their side of the mutual contract under which grants of land have been assigned to them. Notwithstanding these difficulties, a fair number have prospered, and certainly appear to unprejudiced onlookers to have distinctly bettered their condition by having emigrated from England to Chile. This prairie land is not yet exhausted. It is no longer to be had free, but tracts of it are from time to time sold by the Government, and can be purchased at a moderate price. There is thus an undoubted opening for a small influx of working farmers, who understand that practically new land carries with it the inconvenience of a certain measure of unsettled government.

For skilled artisans there is also a moderate demand. On the railways; in the large farms where modern machinery is employed; in the foundries at the large towns; in the nitrate establishments, where skilled operatives are in the proportion of one in five, an English mechanic of proved efficiency and character may gain a satisfactory position. Into this, however, he would have to work his way gradually. On his first arrival in Chile, indeed, he might find it difficult to get work at all, and would not, at any rate, be offered better wages than his native competitor. The latter receives only about 2s. 6d. a day, which, to an Englishman, and especially to a new comer, would mean support of but a scanty kind. Moreover, the emigrant would be probably subjected to discomfort from the jealousy of the native workmen. Amongst these a certain measure of resentment at the introduction of foreign labour is decidedly on the increase. "Chile for the Chileans" was a cry with which the late President Balmaceda sought to attract adherents, and though the cry fell flat at the time it was first raised, it has left disagreeable echoes behind it. Still there is certainly a demand for a constant, though moderate, influx of foreign workmen of this type, and means are provided by the Government through which English mechanics of good quality might take advantage of the markets thus opened for their services.

Prospects for
the skilled
artisan.

Native
jealousy.

There is in Chile an organisation for the encouragement and regulation of the national industries called "La Sociedad de Fomento Fabril." At the present time this body has specially in view the promotion of new manufactures, and in particular is attempting to establish schools of technical instruction. It is employed by the Government to act as agent in the matter of emigration. Keeping in close touch with the existing industries of the country, it assists individuals whose services are likely to be from time to time in demand to come to Chile with their families, if they possess families. As an instance of the discriminating work of this society, its emigration report for July and August of this year may be conveniently quoted. 116 persons were assisted with half passages. Amongst these were

La Sociedad
de Fomento
Fabril.

Concluding
remarks.

carpenters, mechanics, millers, dressmakers, shoemakers, embroiderers, bakers, gardeners, tailors, and vine-growers. These statistics are fairly typical of the number and quality of emigrants which Chile can absorb without friction and inconvenience. The agency of the Fomento Fabril in Europe is established at No. 8, Rue Sontas, Passy, Paris. Hitherto the emigrants brought to Chile by this means have been mainly Italians, Spaniards, and Frenchmen. No doubt people speaking languages of Latin origin, and brought up amidst the Roman Catholic form of Christianity, assimilate most readily with the native Chilians. There is, however, no reason why skilled English workmen should refrain from availing themselves of this opportunity for emigration, and if of sufficient character to stand the test of a social atmosphere of a somewhat trying kind, they may hope to prosper in Chile.

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CHINA.

SHANGHAI.

Acting Consul-General Jamieson to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord, *Shanghai, August 5, 1893.*

I HAVE the honour to forward herewith copy of a Report which I have prepared on the general position which China occupies in regard to the Silver Question, and indicating more particularly the extent to which she has been or may be expected to be a consumer of silver, and also the effect which the fall in Silver has had on the prices of commodities in China and on the volume of exports.

I venture to think that this Report may be of some interest at the present juncture.

I have, &c.
(Signed) G. JAMIESON.

Report on the Balance of Trade between China and Foreign Countries and on the Effect of the Fall in Silver on Prices of Commodities in China and on the Volume of Exports.

ABSTRACT of Contents.

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Object of this paper.

In the following pages I propose to review the general trade between China and foreign countries during the last 23 years with a view to showing:—

1. To what extent China has been an importer or exporter of the precious metals since 1870.
2. What has been the effect of the fall in the value of silver on prices of:—
 - (a.) Articles of native origin commonly exported to foreign countries.
 - (b.) Articles of native origin commonly produced for consumption in China itself.
3. What has been the effect of the fall of silver in stimulating the volume of exports from China?

Preliminary Observations.

China would seem to be peculiarly well situated for observing phenomena connected with changes in the value of the precious metals. There is a fair stock of both gold and silver in the country. Neither is produced to any extent at the present day within the country itself, but there is perfect freedom of transport to and from foreign countries.

There is no legislation in the country giving either metal a preference over the other as a medium of exchange. By common consent silver is so used, not, however, in the form of national coins bearing a certain standard of value, but simply by weight, as one commodity might be exchanged for another. There is nothing to prevent gold being used in payment, if the parties so desire, and if so used, it would be taken by weight. The relative value of gold and silver changes day by day, and closely follows the exchange on the London market.

The Government of China has not been a borrower in the foreign market to any appreciable extent. Small loans have been contracted from time to time, but at the present moment they are nearly all paid off. There has never, therefore, been any disturbance of values by the sudden augmentation of the stock of the precious metals in the country, and whatever minor effects the temporary borrowing may have had, have been counteracted by the subsequent repayment.

Again, all the conditions regarding mode and cost of production of commodities in the interior have remained unchanged. The same methods of agriculture, of manufacture and of transport are still in vogue as were used, not merely 20 years, but 100 or several 100 years ago. There has been no cheapening of production, as in all western countries, by the introduction of machinery, the substitution of steam for manual labour, or by improved facilities of transport. With the exception of the steam boat service on the coast, the means of transport remain such as they have always been within the memory of man. The facilities provided for the interchange of commodities between the ports open to foreign trade through foreign steamers, have doubtless cheapened the productions of one province to the consumers of another, but on the whole, it does not appear that the cost of articles at the port of production has been affected thereby.

The foreign trade of China now amounts to a total of some 52,000,000*l.* sterling, being the equivalent at the present rate of exchange of 235,000,000 Haikwan taels. This was composed for last year of imports, 27,000,000*l.*, and exports, 25,000,000*l.* The trade is thus large enough to allow free play to the adjustment of values through competition with those of the rest of the world.

If, for instance, any article of general demand—say wool, or silk, or cotton—were found to be cheaper in China than elsewhere, competition would at once set in, and buyers would bid against one another until the equilibrium was restored. This result will be the same whether the relative cheapness is caused by a difference in the exchange value of gold and silver or is due to other causes. Say that a sovereign will buy in London at any given time a pound of raw silk and at the same time exchanges for 6 dol. in China, the price of a pound of raw silk in Shanghai will tend to conform to a standard of 6 dol., less duty and costs of transport. If, then, by a fall in rates of

Extent of
foreign trade
of China.

Prices in
China
necessarily
conform to
those of the
rest of the
world.

exchange the sovereign will produce 7 dol. in China, the price of silk in London remaining constant, the price of silk in Shanghai is 1 dol. a pound below the London price. Competition at once sets in, and the price in Shanghai is quickly raised to 7 dol. Or suppose, again, that the price of a pound of silk in London falls to 17s., while the gold value of silver falls as before, so that the 17s. will produce in China approximately 6 dol. The price of silk in China will not be affected, but the price of gold will. Gold, as a commodity, is then 15 per cent. cheaper in China than in London, and foreign buyers will bid against one another so long as any holders can be found willing to sell until equilibrium is restored.

It is thus evident that changes in the relative value of gold and silver arising in Europe will, through the agency of international commerce, immediately have their full effect in the altered purchasing power of the two metals all the world over, and in China no less than elsewhere; and in as much as, for the reasons before stated, the problems connected with cost of production which complicate questions of this nature in Europe, and even in India, are here absent, it would seem that China is a very favourable field for observing the effect of the fall in silver on prices generally.

1. *Question of the Balance of Trade in the Foreign Commerce of China. Imports and Exports of Bullion.*

Balance of trade.

Available data for determining.

No statistics of movement of bullion available prior to 1868.

The first point I wish to examine is the effect of foreign trade on the stock of the precious metals in the country.

Unfortunately, no statistics of the movements of bullion are available until a comparatively recent date. The only agency by which information of this kind could be collected and preserved is the Imperial Maritime Customs. Statistics of the values of imports and exports of merchandise have been published by this Department since about the year 1863, and ever since 1870 the returns have been compiled with great care, and may now be accepted as being as accurate as the nature of the case will allow. Unfortunately, however, the import and export of bullion formed an exception. As bullion paid no duty, no permit was required for its being shipped or landed, and consequently no accurate check was possible on the quantities entering or leaving the country. To some extent these drawbacks are still in operation, but a greater desire on the part of the customs authorities to ensure accuracy, and a greater willingness on the part of merchants and bankers to co-operate, have combined to make the returns of bullion published for the last four or five years fairly trustworthy.

The only means, therefore, by which a general notion can be got of the extent to which silver has been entering or leaving the country during the last 20 years is by a comparison of the values of the imports and exports. If these are

accurately given they ought either to balance, or, if they do not, the difference must be made up by a corresponding import or export of either gold or silver. China having, as I said, practically paid off the only small loans she ever contracted, there is no national indebtedness on the one side or the other to complicate the account other than that arising from the summing-up of the year's transactions.

I propose, then, to examine the returns published by the Chinese Imperial Customs, with a view of ascertaining on which side the balance of trade lies, and to what extent. These returns, however, require several corrections before they can be used for this purpose. If the annual values of the imports and exports as there given are added together, say for the past 20 years, it will appear as if the imports out-valued the exports by some 2,000,000*l.* per annum, and that, therefore, there has been a constant outflow of the precious metals to that extent. This is by no means the true state of facts, and a few brief explanations are necessary to show what corrections and allowances must be made.

Values given by customs returns are relied on. Require, however, certain corrections.

In the first place, the values given in these returns are the market values at the port of landing or shipment, as the case may be. A moment's consideration will show that this is not the value at which the one sort of merchandise can be set off against the other, that is, the imports against the exports. Take, for instance, a consignment of Manchester goods arriving from England for sale by a local agent which fetches on the market 10,000 taels. The whole of this sum is not available for remittance to the owner in England. The local agent, before he can put the goods on the market, has had to pay duty and landing charges, perhaps also storage and insurance, and he expects also a commission as seller. He makes up his account thus—

Explanation of proposed corrections. Difference between market values and exchangeable values. Examples in illustration.

Description.							Amount.
							Taels.
Paid duty	..	..	..	..	..	..	500
Commission charges	..	..	..	..	..	..	400
Balance to be remitted	..	..	..	..	..	..	9,100
Total	..	..	..	..	..	..	10,000

If his principal has instructed him to invest the proceeds in native produce for shipment to London, instead of remitting, he will take care to purchase only such an amount as will leave him enough in hand to pay the export duty and his commission and charges. His account will then run thus :—

Description.						Amount.
						Taels.
Bought, say 500 piculs tea at 15 taels	..	..	..	..	..	7,500
Paid duty at 2.50 taels	..	..	..	..	..	1,250
Commission and charges	..	..	..	..	..	350
Total	..	..	..	..	..	9,100

The transaction is thus closed from an international point of view; there is no balance to be remitted on either side. But it is evident that it would be quite erroneous to represent, as the customs returns do, that the double transaction meant that imports to the value of 10,000 taels had come into the country and exports to the value of 7,500 taels had left. What really took place was an import of the value of 9,100 taels and an export of an identical value.

Freights need not be counted on China's exports as part of cost.

It will be noticed that I have taken no note of freight outward. This, though usually paid and charged by the exporting agent, does not really enter into the transaction, because if paid by the shipper it has to be remitted by the agent of the vessel to the shipowner; all ocean-going vessels being foreign owned, and so comes to the same thing as if not paid here at all. So I have not allowed anything for importer's profit, but only selling commission, as that is in the long run what meets the local expenditure of the foreign merchants or agents. If they are themselves principals they will call whatever surplus remains over after the transaction is closed, profit, but in so far as this exceeds a commission it will eventually be remitted to the country of the foreign merchant.

Commission and charges must be deducted from imports and added to exports.

The customs returns must therefore be corrected by deducting from the imports and adding to exports duty and charges in each case. The customs authorities have recognised the necessity of this correction, and have, since 1890, introduced into the returns for each port an amendment purporting to show the true values of imports and exports at the moment of landing and shipment respectively. With the general principle and the reasons given for the correction I entirely agree, but it seems to me that in making the correction an error of fact has been introduced which overstates the values very considerably in favour of China, and leaves the result still untrustworthy. I allude to the percentage which is added to exports and deducted from imports by way of commission and charges.

Question of what is proper amount of commission.

This is taken for imports at 7 per cent., and for exports at 8 per cent. These figures, so far as I have been able to ascertain, are far too large. The true way to look at the foreign trade of China, which is all done by foreign capital, is to regard it, so far as local charges go, as purely a commission business. What ought to be deducted from market value of imports under this heading is the sum of all local expenditure incurred in carrying on the business, *i.e.*, everything paid locally

and spent in the country. So for exports you must add all expenditure accruing to China between the purchase in the market and the point of shipment. This is a matter of fact, which can only be determined by a reference to those that know, and collating all the information that I have been able to gather, I think that 4 per cent. all round is enough to cover everything. This, of course, is exclusive of duty, the amount of which is known, and on this basis I have made the calculations that follow.

The next point to be noticed is that, previous to 1887, the customs returns did not represent the whole of the foreign trade of China. The proximity of the colony of Hong-Kong to the mainland of China enables a large trade to be carried on by native junks, which have for many years imported into the several towns along the southern coast quantities of foreign manufactures, and have conveyed into Hong-Kong more or less of native produce destined for foreign consumption, neither of which came within the purview of the Foreign Maritime Customs. No statistics were obtainable at the native offices, and, Hong-Kong being a free port, no information as to the values of junk cargoes was to be procured on that side. Consequently it was impossible to form any accurate sort of estimate as to the amount of this trade, or as to the proportions which the imports bore to the exports. One thing, however, was known, and that was that almost all the Indian opium consumed in Southern China entered by these junks, and not through the Foreign Customs. This alone made it quite certain that a great deal more in value entered China by this means than came out. It was estimated that from 15,000 to 18,000 chests of opium entered China in this way, which, at an average cost in Hong-Kong of 350 taels per chest, made an indebtedness on the part of China and increased the national bill against her by some 5,000,000 taels to 6,000,000 taels per annum.

Customs returns did not include the whole of foreign trade of China prior to 1887.

In 1887 the control of the junk trade between Hong-Kong and the mainland was by international convention placed in the hands of the Maritime Customs, since which time we have had accurate accounts published of all merchandise passing between Hong-Kong and China in native craft. The first and most conspicuous result of this was that the import of Indian opium into Canton by steamer, which had for many years been merely nominal, suddenly sprang to over 6,000,000 taels in 1888, and has remained since at between 5,000,000 taels and 6,000,000 taels. I find that during the five years 1888 to 1892 the values of the junk cargoes, including such opium as they carry, approximately balance each other. Reasoning backwards, then, from what has been ascertained since the junk trade came under review, I conclude that the value of the foreign imports into China by way of junk exceeded the exports by about 5,000,000 taels. This, therefore, is the sum which must be added to the imports into China each year in making up the balance prior to 1887.

Allowance to be made on that account.

A small amount of trade finds its way by junk to other foreign parts, but this can have no appreciable effect on the general result, and it may be said that we have thus accounted for the whole of the sea-borne trade of China. As to what takes place on the western or northern frontier we have no information, and for the present that must be left out of account.

Further items
necessary to
be noticed.

Here taken to
balance one
another.

There are several other items which ought to be noticed if a strictly accurate account is to be taken between China and foreign nations, but I content myself here by merely indicating them without attempting to strike a balance between those that make for and those that make against China. I do so, firstly, because I have no data that can be entirely relied upon; and secondly, because, taking a rough estimate, the one set of items may be considered as on the whole a fair set-off against the other.

To the debit of China are the following:—

1. Rents and profits from foreign capital invested in China. The value of land alone within the foreign settlement of Shanghai is estimated at about 20,000,000 taels, and the buildings thereon may be taken as worth half as much. This gives a total of 30,000,000 taels, of which perhaps half is owned by foreigners resident out of the country, mostly, of course, in England. Taking interest on this at 6 per cent. to 7 per cent., we have an annual sum to be remitted of about 1,000,000 taels on this head alone. The like profits from other ports would, of course, swell this considerably.

2. Earnings of foreign owned vessels engaged in the coasting trade, so far as divisible abroad, and remittances for purchase of new steamers both foreign and Chinese owned.

3. Expenditure on Chinese Government account for vessels of war, and for purchase of arms and munitions of war, for machinery for Government arsenals, and for expenses connected with legations and consulates abroad.

And lastly, there are still small annual payments to be made in respect of the interest of unexpired loans. I do not include the principal, as that would merely be a cross entry.

All these items must amount to a very considerable sum per annum, but they are fully balanced by the considerations on the other side which are:—

1. Disbursements in Chinese ports of foreign owned vessels engaged in the international trade. As no freight is assumed to be payable in China, an allowance must be made for ships' disbursements, tonnage dues, and repairs while in Chinese waters.

2. Wages and other disbursements of foreign men of war serving on China station.

3. Salaries and expenses of foreign legations and consulates in China, as also salaries and expenses of missionaries, no inconsiderable item.

4. And last, there are the earnings and savings of Chinese in foreign ports—San Francisco, Australia, Java, Manila, the

Straits Settlements, &c., all of which ultimately find their way to China. This must be a very large item, and one which is probably increasing.

It being, however, impossible, with our present information, to strike any exact balance between these opposing accounts, I leave them to stand against each other.

Allowing for the various corrections and additions in the manner I have indicated, the balance of trade between China and foreign countries presents itself as follows:—

Value of imports and exports since 1865.

TABLE of Imports into, and Exports from, China, during the Years 1865-92, showing Balance for and against China every Year.*

Year.	Value of Imports.	Value of Exports.	Balance in Favour of China.	Balance Against China.
	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.
1865	55,861,000	60,161,000	4,300,000	
1866	66,852,000	56,280,000	..	10,072,000
1867	61,930,000	58,167,000	..	3,763,000
1868	62,595,000	68,891,000	6,096,000	
1869	60,091,000	67,114,000	1,023,000	
1870	62,720,000	61,771,000	..	949,000
1871	68,606,000	74,773,000	6,167,000	
1872	66,096,000	84,139,000	18,043,000	
1873	65,320,000	77,207,000	11,887,000	
1874	63,125,000	74,915,000	11,790,000	
1875	66,344,000	77,308,000	10,964,000	
1876	68,558,000	89,856,000	21,298,000	
1877	71,296,000	75,845,000	4,549,000	
1878	68,952,000	75,661,000	6,709,000	
1879	79,290,000	81,150,000	1,860,000	
1880	76,689,000	87,694,000	11,005,000	
1881	88,432,000	81,179,000	..	7,253,000
1882	75,110,000	76,617,000	1,507,000	
1883	71,400,000	79,163,000	7,763,000	
1884	70,650,000	76,121,000	5,471,000	
1885	84,803,000	73,899,000	..	10,904,000
1886	84,163,000	87,323,000	3,165,000	
1887	94,701,000	95,932,000	1,231,000	
1888	111,662,000	102,596,000	..	9,066,000
1889	94,056,000	107,203,000	8,147,000	
1890	113,082,000	96,695,000	..	16,387,000
1891	118,733,000	111,499,000	..	7,234,000
1892	120,753,000	113,101,000	..	7,652,000

* Values in Haikwan taels, the exchange of which in London varies from 6s. 6d. in 1866-73 to 4s. 4d. in 1892.

The most noticeable features in this table are these:—

1st. From 1865 up to 1870 the imports and exports very nearly balance. General observations on foregoing.

2nd. From 1871 to 1880 there is a uniform balance in favour of China, indicating flow of silver from Europe to China. The total amount of silver thus absorbed would appear to be about (1639)

100,000,000 taels, of a sterling value of 30,000,000*l*. The value of the tael fell in those 10 years continuously from 6*s*. 8*d*. in 1872, to 5*s*. 8*d*. in 1880.

Value of tael in gold has been continuously decreasing.

Except for short period 1879-84, when it remained fairly steady. Value of tael has not influenced balance. Statistics of movement of bullion.

3rd. During the period from 1881 to 1887, the imports and exports again approximately balance, and from 1888 to date there has been an adverse balance against China, amounting in the aggregate to about 32,000,000 taels, and indicating a corresponding drain of one or other of the precious metals from China. The value of the tael was approximately steady from 1879 to 1884 at 5*s*. 7*d*. From 1884 to 1892 it has fallen continuously from 5*s*. 7*d*. to 4*s*. 4*d*. It is thus impossible to trace any direct relation between the value of the tael and the proportion between imports and exports.

No sufficient data are obtainable for a reliable return of the import and export of treasure so as to check the accuracy of these figures, prior to 1888. Since that year, however, statistics of the movement of bullion and specie between China and foreign countries have been published by the customs authorities, and I present in the following table a summary of the net result:—

TABLE showing Net Movement of Treasure during the Years 1888-92.

Year.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Gold.	Silver.	Gold.	Silver.
	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.
1888	..	..	1,678,000	1,911,000
1889	..	6,005,000	1,625,000	..
1890	..	..	1,783,000	3,557,000
1891	..	..	3,693,000	3,113,000
1892	..	..	7,332,000	4,825,000

Combining the two tables together from the year 1888 we get the following result:—

Year.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Merchandise.	Treasure.
	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.
1888	111,662,000	..	102,596,000	3,589,000
1889	99,056,000	6,005,000	107,203,000	1,625,000
1890	113,082,000	..	96,695,000	5,340,000
1891	113,733,000	..	111,499,000	6,806,000
1892	120,753,000	..	113,101,000	12,157,000
Total	563,286,000	6,005,000	531,094,000	29,517,000

Description.		Amount.
		H. taels.
Total imports of treasure and merchandise	..	569,291,000
" exports " " "	..	560,611,000

The small discrepancy between the two sides of the account may, I think, be easily explained by ascribing it to the increased earnings of the crowds of Chinese who now find profitable employment in Singapore, Penang, and the other settlements of the Malayan Peninsular. In speaking of the subordinate matters which enter into the account for and against China, I assumed that they mutually balanced. But it may well be that there is, on the whole, a balance in favour of China arising from the remittances of her emigrants, and that this enters the country as merchandise and not as treasure. As the figures stand, China appears to have got some 8,500,000 taels in the 5 years more than she has paid for, and the suggestion is that she pays for it in this way, viz.: by using the savings of her subjects abroad which would otherwise come as treasure.

Suggested explanation of small difference.

It is thus apparent that though the foregoing tables do not accurately balance, they mutually confirm each other, and fully establish two facts:—

Conclusion to be drawn from this table.

1st. That China has taken no silver off the European market for a number of years, and,

2nd. That there has been a small but increasing flow of gold from China to Europe.

By the way of further illustrating the movements of the precious metals as between China and foreign countries, I present a summary of an unofficial return which has been furnished me by one of the banks in Hong-Kong, showing the imports into and exports from Hong-Kong of specie and bullion for the years 1884–92. This return considers Hong-Kong as forming one group with China, which indeed for statistical purposes it may be deemed to be, and takes note only of gold or silver coming into Hong-Kong from foreign countries, or leaving Hong-Kong for foreign countries.

Further evidence in confirmation of view taken.

RETURN of Treasure Entering and Leaving Hong-Kong
from and to all Places other than China during the
Years 1884-92.

Year.	Imports.		Exports.	
	Gold.	Silver.	Gold.	Silver.
	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.
1884	600,000	11,047,000	3,020,000	6,997,000
1885	170,000	8,119,000	5,772,000	10,604,000
1886	695,000	6,912,000	2,620,000	5,100,000
1887	1,235,000	7,669,000	3,870,000	7,742,000
1888	1,175,000	4,653,000	4,289,000	9,915,000
1889	1,045,000	9,305,000	4,099,000	5,236,000
1890	1,323,000	5,385,000	2,927,000	8,212,000
1891	1,027,000	4,814,000	4,075,000	3,775,000
1892	1,583,000	7,960,000	6,140,000	5,483,000
Total	8,853,000	65,854,000	36,812,000	68,064,000

	Value.	
	Currency.	Sterling.
	H. taels.	£
Net export of gold for 9 years ..	27,959,000	..
Equivalent, at average exchange, to	..	6,989,000
Net export of silver for 9 years ..	2,210,000	..
Equivalent to	..	552,000

This return must not be taken for more than it is intended, viz.: a rough estimate of the amount of specie or bullion entering and leaving China by way of Hong-Kong. It does not purport to represent the whole movement of the precious metals between China (including Hong-Kong) and foreign countries, because a great deal is imported direct into Shanghai both from Europe and America, and it is on this point that statistics are wanting prior to 1888. But taking the return as far as it goes, it does seem to confirm the conclusion already come to, viz.: that China has not been, for the last 10 years, an importer of silver to any appreciable extent.

This will probably appear surprising to many and contrary to what might reasonably have been expected in view of the great fall in the price of silver, but the facts seem too strong to admit of any other conclusion. Why it should be so I cannot otherwise explain than by saying that the Chinese are ready and willing customers for our manufactures to the full extent of their means, and even a little over. Their own exports have grown fairly well, as will be seen by a reference to the foregoing table, but their imports have fully kept pace. They

invest all the proceeds of what they sell in foreign wares, and they have, in addition, been sending a good deal of gold and a small amount of silver to pay for their purchases.

The amount of gold sent out of the country during the last ten or fifteen years must be considerable, and it is a question of some interest to ascertain where it comes from. A certain quantity is simply a re-export of gold sovereigns brought by returned emigrants from San Francisco and Australia, but the bulk of it is a genuine export of the country itself. So far as we know no gold mines are now worked to any extent within the bounds of China proper. A small amount finds its way down from the Russo-Siberian frontier and from certain gold washings in the Amoor River, but that cannot be much.

The gold for export comes mainly from the private hoards of wealthy Chinese where it may have been for generations in the shape of bracelets, hair-pins and other ornaments, being tempted out by the unprecedentedly high price now paid for it. There is also a considerable amount of gold in the shape of bars which pass especially in the north as an article of commerce. It is said that one of the principal uses to which such bars are put is to serve as the medium in which presents are made to high officials. It is well known that provincial officials returning to the capital after a few years' service must conform to time-honoured custom, and an innocent looking flower-pot with a few gold bars under the roots of the plant is the most acceptable form in which the necessary gratification can be made.

In one form or other a very considerable amount of gold exists in China, and I apprehend that there will be, so long as the present rate of exchange lasts, a continuous export to Europe.

Purchasing Power of Silver.

I now come to the second of the questions I proposed to discuss, viz., the endeavour to ascertain whether the prices of commodities in China have altered during the last 20 years; in other words, whether the purchasing power of silver has varied with the varying exchange.

To illustrate this I have compiled three tables of the prices of commodities, which are hereto appended and marked A, B, and C.

The first, Table A, comprises articles which are exclusively or principally both produced and consumed in China.

The second, Table B, comprises articles produced in China, but destined for the most part for foreign consumption.

The third, Table C, comprises articles produced abroad but consumed in China.

The prices given in Table A are compiled from customs values, and are, as far as possible, the prices at the ports of production. The prices in Tables B and C are compiled either

Question of
gold supply in
China.

Main supply
is from
hoarding of
Chinese
families.

Gold export
may be
expected to
continue.

Question of
the prices of
commodities.

from customs values or from Chamber of Commerce price lists and other contemporaneous market reports. All three tables are, I believe, as accurate as the nature of the case will allow. At all events, they represent beyond dispute the general tendency of prices, spread over a series of years.

An examination of those tables will, I think, establish the following conclusions:—

1. As regards articles which are both produced and consumed in China, silver prices have on the whole tended to decline. There is a moderate rise in a few articles, principally food stuffs, but all over there is a decline of about 9 per cent.

2. As regards articles of native origin exported to foreign countries the silver price has not advanced with the fall in exchange. Prices, on the whole, are almost exactly on the level of the years 1870 to 1874.

3. As regards articles of foreign manufacture or production imported for sale in China the average price in silver has declined very considerably.

Chinese can now obtain their supplies at a less cost even in silver than they could 20 years ago by some 26 per cent.

Purchasing
power of
silver in China
not declined,
but has rather
increased.
Purchasing
power of gold
has advanced
40 per cent.

In other words, the purchasing power of silver has not declined in respect to any of the classes of commodities, and has even considerably increased in respect of the first and last classes.

The purchasing power of gold, on the other hand—that is its local market value—has steadily advanced with every successive fall in the rates of exchange on London, till now 4s. will purchase what formerly required 6s. 6d., or 60% will now do what used to require 100%. This is best illustrated by putting the gold and silver prices side by side as follows:—

The several quantities of commodities enumerated in the tables could have been bought as below.

Those in Table A could have been bought:—

Year.	Amount.	
	Currency.	Sterling.
	H. taels.	£ s.
In 1873	81.56	26 10
1892	74.27	16 12

TABLE B.

Year.	Amount.	
	Currency.	Sterling.
	H. taels.	£ s.
In 1873	375 06	121 17
1892	381.21	83 0

TABLE C.

Year.	Amount.	
	Currency.	Sterling.
	H. taels.	£ s.
In 1878	43.09	14 0
1892	29.96	6 10

As regards Table A the result arrived at will not appear surprising. The only way, it would seem, in which foreign trade or the fluctuations of foreign exchanges can affect internal prices, *i.e.*, prices of articles which are not in demand for foreign trade, is by drawing away or bringing in one or other of the precious metals. If the result of foreign trade is to cause a flow of silver into or out of the country the value or the purchasing power of silver will tend to fall or rise as the case may be, and so with gold. But, as we have seen, there has been no great addition to the stock of silver in China during the period under review, and consequently we ought not to expect a general rise in prices. The fluctuations which we find in the prices of commodities in Table A can, indeed, be shown to coincide closely with the greater or less supply of silver. From 1870 to 1880 there was a continuous favourable balance of trade, indicating a flow of silver into China.

Accordingly we find there is during this period a tendency of prices to advance. From 1880 onwards there has been no silver coming to China, and as without this extraneous supply the stock in the country is insufficient to meet the growing wants of commerce, the price of commodities tends to fall.

As regards Table B the conclusions to be drawn from that are more perplexing.

Given an equilibrium of prices at any time between a silver-using and gold-using country, say, between China and England, any subsequent fall in the gold price of silver must, it would seem, have in respect to exports from China one or other of three results. It must either raise the price to the Chinese producer, or it must lower the price to the English consumer, or the difference must remain as profit in the pockets of the middlemen.

The last alternative is of course excluded as a permanent result. The immediate effect of a fall is no doubt to enable the merchant to realize a better profit on merchandise at the time in transit, but competition quickly puts an end to this. As between the other two alternatives one would be disposed to say "a priori" that the larger market would rule and that the gold price would tend to remain steady, leaving the adjustment to be made at the other side. In that case the silver price in China must rise.

In internal trade prices will vary with the greater or less supply of silver.

Prices in Table B. might have been expected to rise, but have not.

General rule
that in
adjustments
following on
fall in silver.

It is gold
price that
gives way.

But it does not appear to be so. It is, I believe, a well-known fact in the commercial world, that it is always much easier to lower prices than to raise them. If you can afford to go down a $\frac{1}{2}d.$ a bargain is much more easily struck than if you are bound to stand out for a rise of a $\frac{1}{2}d.$ It would seem then to be a general rule that adjustments following on a fall of exchange are always made along the line of least resistance, and that therefore it is not the China price that rises, but the London price that falls. Merchants operating on the usual principles find it easier to buy Asiatic produce at the old prices and sell it in London at a concession, than to stand out for old prices at home, in order to be able to pay more to the producer.

The experience of the last 20 years shows that with every fall in the gold price of silver there has invariably been a simultaneous lowering in the gold price of commodities in Europe. This has variously been ascribed to the scarcity of gold or to the greater strain thrown upon existing stocks by its extended use, or to a reduction in the cost of production, but may it not be ascribed principally or entirely to the competition of the produce of silver-using countries? If it is a fact that there has been no general rise in the silver price of produce in India and China and other silver-using countries, or a less rise than the fall in silver should produce, then the gold price of such produce when imported into Europe must necessarily have fallen with the fall in exchange.

Probable
continued
decline of
commodities
in Europe
with any
further fall in
silver.

Effect of fall
in silver on
export trade
of China.

To what
extent fall in
silver has
stimulated
exports from
China.

From this point of view it is really silver that rules the world; it is the purchasing power of the cheaper metal that determines the price all over. Just as in a bi-metallic country the cheaper metal will drive out the dearer towards her mono-metallic neighbours, so, as between countries of different standards, will the prices prevailing in the country of the cheaper metal drag down prices all over to their own level. And reasoning forward from the experience of the past, it would not, perhaps, be too rash to conclude that prices of commodities in Europe, so far as these can be drawn in any fair quantity from silver-using countries, must continue to decline with every further fall in silver.

In regard to the third matter of inquiry which I proposed to discuss, viz., how far the fall in silver has stimulated exports from China, an answer has in effect been supplied by the foregoing remarks. There has been a stimulus, but not such a stimulus as might have been expected. The stimulus has been a readiness on the part of foreign merchants to buy native produce of all sorts at current quotations, but not the stimulus which comes from offering higher prices.

Such as it is, however, it has developed the exports very considerably, especially within the last few years. In 1872 the exports of China stood in value approximately as follows:—

Articles.				Value.	Comparative values of exports, 1872-92.
				H. taels.	
Silk and silk products	..	..	..	26,000,000	
Tea, all kinds..	..	..	..	38,000,000	
Miscellaneous..	..	..	..	7,000,000	

In 1892 the figures were—

Articles.				Value.
				H. taels.
Silk and silk products	..	..	..	38,292,000
Tea, all kinds..	..	..	..	25,983,000
Miscellaneous..	..	..	..	38,308,000

The following table indicates in some detail the particular lines in which the general exports from China have developed. The prices of these articles will be found in Tables A and B.

Articles.	Value.		
	1872.	1880.	1892.
	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.
Silk, raw	23,762,000	23,227,000	27,736,000
„ waste	293,000	947,000	2,603,000
„ piece-goods	2,138,000	3,422,000	6,900,000
Tea, black and green	37,304,000	33,493,000	23,475,000
„ brick	785,000	2,132,000	2,503,000
Peas and beans.. .. .	246,000	160,000	1,187,000
Cotton, raw (for Japan) ..	394,000	180,000	5,089,000
Hides	17,000	253,000	495,000
Straw braid	84,000	1,227,000	2,056,000
Wool	14,600	30,000	1,545,000
Skins and rugs.. .. .	5,200	152,000	1,315,000
Paper	260,000	512,000	1,572,000
Matting.. .. .	438,000	533,000	1,202,000
Sugar, brown	618,000	2,452,000	1,609,000
Tobacco.. .. .	137,000	168,000	1,074,000

Tea has always figured so prominently as one of the Tea products of China that it could not be omitted from any list of exports, but the causes operating of late years to affect both its price and the volume of the export have been so exceptional that it ought not, perhaps, to be included in a table from which it is sought to draw general conclusions. As will be seen, both the price and the quantity have fallen off very much, owing, of course, to the Indian competition. If tea, *i.e.*, black tea, to which alone these remarks apply, were excluded from Table B, the figures then would indicate a small general rise of prices.

The price of raw silk has shown a tendency to decline, but silk.
(1639)

it has lately recovered, and now stands at about the level of 1873. The average value of China manufactured silk has advanced slightly, and the export has more than trebled.

Straw.

The prices of straw braid and wool have advanced some 15 per cent. or 16 per cent., with a large increase of export; but, on the other hand, the price of raw cotton, the export of which has grown more than that of anything else, has been steady, and the prices of tobacco, paper, and sugar, all of which show a large growth of export, have all gone down. It may, however, be remarked that these are not exports to Europe, but to silver-using countries such as Japan, Singapore, &c, and so ought rather to be classed with domestic trade.

No relation traceable between rise in prices and in growth of export.

Reasons for expecting rise of prices in China.

It is thus difficult to formulate any general rule as to a relation between prices and volume of export, but it may be said that on the whole, leaving tea out of account, there has been a small advance in silver prices of articles sent to gold-using countries, and to this extent there has been a direct stimulus to exports. There seems every reason to expect that this tendency will be greatly enhanced in the near future, in view of the recent action of the Indian Government in fixing the value of the rupee in gold, which will probably have the double effect of still further depreciating silver and of limiting the silver using area whence produce can be drawn for the European markets. Whenever silver falls below the normal line of 1s. 4d. for the rupee, Indian produce will, it would seem, be unable to compete on the old terms with that of China. The area of cheaper produce being thus narrowed, it is probable that the price in London will not continue to fall or will not fall so much, and that will necessarily mean enhanced prices in China and an increased export.

Action of Indian Government may be expected to enhance this tendency.

Limited range of Chinese exports.

It unfortunately happens that, outside of tea and silk, China does not produce many articles that are of universal demand. Her one great industry is agriculture, but agriculture to supply her own wants. The export of rice, wheat and cereals of all kinds, except peas and beans, is absolutely forbidden. If this were otherwise, it is probable that the exports of China might grow very fast, but as things are, I do not look for any very rapid expansion.

China cannot be a great importer of silver.

It follows, therefore, that it is impossible to expect that China will, under present circumstances, become a great consumer of silver.

She cannot get silver without paying for it.

The conditions of the last few years which have made China an absolute exporter of silver are doubtless abnormal. Under ordinary circumstances China ought to be an importer, but of course she cannot get silver unless she gives value for it in some form or other. Her power of absorbing silver is measured by the difference between the value of her exports and imports, and unless the former outvalue the latter, there is nothing left for her to receive. I see no reason to suppose that China will, until things are greatly altered, take the place of India as an absorber of silver.

But the undeveloped capacities of the country are enormous, and if the Government would only allow merchants a free hand in the matter of railways and manufactures, the trade of China might soon outrival that of India. There is probably no country in the world where capital is so much wanted, and where it could be used with greater benefit both to the borrower and the lender.

The amount of silver in the country is, I believe, surprisingly small. Here in Shanghai, which is the commercial metropolis, the stock at any given time, whether in foreign or native hands, seldom exceeds 3,000,000 taels, and is often much less. Stock of silver small compared with size of country.

At Soochow and Hangchow, and other large inland centres, the estimate is usually much less than that, and in the country at large, and even in populous towns and villages, silver is rarely seen at all. Interest is high—running from 5 per cent. to 12 per cent.—and that not on account of insecurity, but because the borrower can use the capital to such advantage as to make it worth his while to pay it.

Viewing the situation from the Chinaman's point of view he finds that his tael or ounce of silver is just as valuable to him as it ever was. He can buy the same amount of all the ordinary necessities of life for the same money as formerly, and of foreign articles he can buy a great deal more. If he has things to sell to the foreigner, he can usually get rather a better price than he used to get, and he finds the foreigner mostly ready to buy, always excepting tea. His wages, rent, and taxes have remained unaltered, as has also the price of land. He can get the same interest on his spare capital if he has any. Relative position of silver and gold from Chinese point of view.

The only thing greatly changed is the price which foreigners are willing to pay for gold, and their strong desire to get it. Formerly the price of gold was 15 ounces to 16 ounces weight of silver for one of gold, and there was not much demand for it. Now there is a universal desire to get it and send it out of the country at prices which have gradually risen from 16 taels to 18 taels, 20 taels, 24 taels, and even 30 taels for 1 tael's weight of gold.

Reverting to the questions which I proposed to myself at the outset of this paper, the conclusions may be thus summarised:—

1. China has not been within the memory of the present generation, a great absorber of silver. From 1870 to 1880 she did take off about 3,000,000*l.* per annum, but since 1880 this process has ceased, and there has even been of late years a slight export.

2. (a) The fall in the gold price of silver appears to have produced no effect on the general level of prices of articles produced and consumed in China.

(b) As regards articles produced in China and commonly exported to gold-using countries there is a slight tendency to a general rise. This will probably be enhanced in the near future.

3. The fall in the price of silver has stimulated exports by making it possible for foreign merchants to purchase and export at a profit a large variety of miscellaneous articles which formerly would have yielded no return at all. The value of such miscellaneous articles has quadrupled within the last ten years. Tea has declined very largely both in volume and price, but for this there are no special reasons. Raw silk of best quality has increased somewhat in volume, but not in price. There has been a great increase in the quantity of waste and refuse silk exported, but the price has somewhat declined.

A continued growth in the exports of China is to be expected, but under present conditions it cannot attain to great dimensions. As the capability of China to absorb silver depends upon the excess of her exports over her imports, there is no reason to expect that China will, within the next few years at all events, take much silver off the European market.

Annex A.—TABLE showing Fluctuations in Prices of Commodities Entering into the Internal Trade of China during the Years 1870-92.

Articles.	Average Values for Year 1870-74.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.
	H. taels. 10·23 3·20 5·31 6·66 1·22 1·10 3·06 0·67 5·88 4·62 6·65 8·52 2·10 2·33 1·76 1·86 3·47 0·98	H. taels. 10·20 4·20 6·50 6·50 1·26 1·15 5·00 0·67 5·60 7·48 4·10 5·88 6·67 4·60 2·26 2·47 1·01 4·00 1·65	H. taels. 9·01 4·20 6·47 7·00 1·25 1·75 5·00 0·73 6·17 9·18 4·92 6·24 7·20 4·70 1·97 2·08 1·19 0·94 1·36	H. taels. 9·10 4·50 7·00 7·50 1·40 1·10 5·50 0·90 6·30 9·00 5·00 5·98 8·10 4·49 2·86 2·60 1·25 1·18 1·33	H. taels. 10·10 4·49 7·20 7·50 1·47 1·18 6·00 0·78 6·86 8·95 5·12 6·62 9·54 4·60 2·86 2·94 1·11 0·83 1·22	H. taels. 9·95 4·51 7·20 6·00 1·46 1·18 6·00 0·76 6·27 8·43 4·86 7·20 8·82 4·90 3·10 3·25 1·95 0·76 1·07	H. taels. 9·95 3·50 7·20 6·00 1·20 1·18 6·00 0·67 6·19 8·52 4·56 6·61 7·21 5·37 3·10 3·12 1·40 0·79 0·88	H. taels. 9·95 3·50 7·20 6·00 1·20 1·18 6·00 0·64 6·53 2·60 4·56 5·66 7·29 5·60 2·84 2·98 1·41 0·77 0·85	H. taels. 10·75 4·00 7·50 7·00 1·20 1·20 6·00 0·68 6·53 9·31 4·85 6·06 7·35 5·40 2·67 3·11 1·40 0·84 0·83	H. taels. 10·93 3·60 6·50 6·00 1·20 1·15 4·50 0·69 6·63 9·04 5·25 5·64 7·47 4·37 2·59 2·93 1·35 0·80 4·00 0·85
Cotton, raw ..	Picul ..									
Nankeens ..	" ..									
Fish, dried ..	" ..									
Lily flowers ..	" ..									
Rice ..	" ..									
Wheat ..	" ..									
Vermicelli ..	" ..									
Bean cake ..	" ..									
Wood oil ..	" ..									
Hemp ..	" ..									
Paper, 2nd quality ..	" ..									
Tobacco, leaf ..	" ..									
Tallow, vegetable ..	" ..									
Wax, white ..	" ..									
Grass cloth ..	" ..									
Sugar, brown ..	Picul ..									
Flour, potato ..	" ..									
Oranges, fresh ..	" ..									
Samahn (native spirit)	" ..									
Glue, cow ..	" ..									
Total ..	..	81·56	95·96	88·59	92·67	93·22	89·49	82·05	90·30	85·54

TABLE showing Fluctuations in Prices of Commodities Entering into the Internal Trade of China during the Years 1870-92—continued.

Articles.		1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.
		H. taels. 11.85 4.00 7.84 6.50 1.20 1.20 5.02 0.72 6.30 8.09 5.00 5.01 6.62 5.09 5.09 3.16 2.18 1.35 0.73 5.44 0.81	H. taels. 11.50 4.00 7.11 5.40 1.60 1.20 5.00 0.68 7.04 7.54 5.87 7.18 5.86 4.98 5.09 3.38 2.40 1.86 0.79 5.98 0.86	H. taels. 10.84 3.94 6.65 5.00 1.80 1.50 4.00 0.81 6.85 7.63 5.70 6.26 5.90 4.85 2.20 4.85 2.20 1.80 0.89 4.00 0.87	H. taels. 10.00 4.00 6.24 5.40 1.30 1.20 4.85 0.80 5.62 6.58 5.46 5.02 5.92 4.55 2.28 2.42 1.76 0.91 4.68 0.91	H. taels. 11.00 4.00 6.50 5.40 1.40 1.20 4.85 0.80 4.96 6.21 4.66 5.01 4.96 4.82 2.55 2.40 1.76 0.91 3.02 0.94	H. taels. 10.00 4.00 6.42 5.40 1.40 1.20 4.85 0.89 4.10 6.70 3.17 5.86 6.72 3.32 2.82 2.38 1.77 1.14 4.70 1.07	H. taels. 10.00 4.00 2.80 5.40 1.30 1.20 4.85 0.81 4.83 5.76 3.15 4.83 6.54 3.37 2.50 2.36 1.80 0.87 5.18 0.92	H. taels. 10.80 4.00 4.73 4.60 1.80 1.45 4.10 0.74 5.42 5.39 2.63 5.94 6.19 3.26 2.70 2.86 1.78 0.88 4.74 1.09	H. taels. 10.00 4.00 5.00 4.50 1.50 1.30 4.10 0.76 5.50 5.80 3.00 5.90 6.20 4.30 2.50 2.38 1.78 0.90 3.64 1.21
Cotton, raw	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Nankeens ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Fish, dried ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Lily flowers ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Rice ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Wheat ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Vermicelli ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Beancake ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Wood oil ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Hemp ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Paper, 2nd quality ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tobacco, leaf ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Tallow, vegetable ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Wax, white ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Grass cloth ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Sugar, brown ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Flour, potato ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Oranges, fresh ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Sanshu (native spirit)	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Glue, cow ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total	..	87.61	89.73	83.47	79.90	77.35	77.61	72.47	74.63	74.27

Annex B.—TABLE showing Fluctuations in Prices of Commodities Produced in China and Exported to Foreign Countries during the Years 1870-92.

Articles.	Average Value for Years 1870-74.	1875.		1876.		1877.		1878.		1879.		1880.		1881.		1882.		1883.	
		H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.
Silk, raw, No 4, $\frac{1}{2}$ picul..	39.60	30.15	31.60	35.10	34.80	36.00	31.50	37.80	35.10	36.90	35.10	37.80	35.10	36.90	35.10	37.80	35.10	36.90	35.10
Tattee .. $\frac{1}{2}$ picul..	34.30	54.00	59.20	60.23	48.92	43.41	47.04	48.90	42.15	43.87	42.15	48.90	42.15	43.87	42.15	48.90	42.15	43.87	42.15
Silk, wild .. $\frac{1}{2}$ picul..	70.20	78.48	78.76	88.38	68.81	64.35	52.26	65.59	53.94	63.70	53.94	65.59	53.94	63.70	53.94	65.59	53.94	63.70	53.94
" cocoons .. $\frac{1}{2}$ picul..	60.83	40.50	48.80	35.30	36.30	44.40	50.23	57.34	47.36	56.33	47.36	57.34	47.36	56.33	47.36	57.34	47.36	56.33	47.36
" refuse goods .. $\frac{1}{2}$ picul..	47.50	62.20	67.80	68.60	60.60	65.00	64.60	64.18	57.65	52.04	57.65	64.18	57.65	52.04	57.65	64.18	57.65	52.04	57.65
Tea, black* .. $\frac{1}{2}$ picul..	23.03	20.67	21.31	17.49	17.88	18.07	17.64	16.01	16.05	17.01	16.05	17.64	16.05	17.01	16.05	17.64	16.05	17.01	16.05
" green .. $\frac{1}{2}$ picul..	32.86	23.61	24.47	21.96	19.60	23.52	22.25	21.45	22.87	20.42	22.87	21.45	22.87	20.42	22.87	21.45	22.87	20.42	22.87
" brick .. $\frac{1}{2}$ picul..	8.76	11.48	11.82	11.90	6.97	5.05	9.11	5.93	5.95	6.86	5.95	9.11	5.95	6.86	5.95	9.11	5.95	6.86	5.95
Cassia lignea .. $\frac{1}{2}$ picul..	8.02	5.09	5.25	5.91	4.66	5.73	5.82	5.23	4.67	3.88	4.67	5.82	5.23	4.67	4.67	5.82	5.23	4.67	4.67
Peas and beans .. $\frac{1}{2}$ picul..	0.90	0.87	1.06	1.15	0.94	0.93	0.82	0.81	0.87	0.86	0.87	0.82	0.81	0.87	0.87	0.82	0.81	0.87	0.87
Hides, cow .. $\frac{1}{2}$ picul..	7.91	8.80	7.76	7.90	7.89	9.17	12.00	11.73	11.70	11.27	11.70	12.00	11.73	11.27	11.70	12.00	11.73	11.27	11.70
Nutgalls .. $\frac{1}{2}$ picul..	6.06	6.13	7.21	7.15	7.24	7.21	9.16	10.00	9.90	9.15	9.90	9.16	10.00	9.90	9.90	9.16	10.00	9.90	9.15
Camphor .. $\frac{1}{2}$ picul..	9.11	10.70	10.20	9.74	10.05	9.57	8.63	9.02	8.22	8.65	8.22	9.02	8.22	8.65	8.22	9.02	8.22	8.65	8.65
Rhubarb .. $\frac{1}{2}$ picul..	5.00	6.90	3.74	3.62	4.31	3.76	5.05	4.93	4.79	3.71	4.79	5.05	4.93	4.79	4.79	5.05	4.93	4.79	3.71
China ware .. $\frac{1}{2}$ picul..	18.72	21.80	20.00	23.90	22.00	24.07	25.07	27.00	27.00	25.02	27.00	25.07	27.00	25.02	27.00	25.07	27.00	25.02	25.02
Strawbraid .. $\frac{1}{2}$ picul..	6.17	6.21	5.61	7.21	7.00	6.56	6.58	6.49	8.75	8.12	8.75	6.58	6.49	8.12	8.75	6.58	6.49	8.12	8.12
Wool .. $\frac{1}{2}$ picul..	375.05	392.89	410.29	411.59	354.39	373.31	376.53	401.00	358.57	379.82	358.57	376.53	401.00	379.82	358.57	376.53	401.00	379.82	379.82
Total value in silver ..	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Equivalent in gold ..	121 19 0	121 3 0	122 5 0	123 9 0	105 11 0	103 0 0	109 0 0	111 2 0	102 7 0	106 9 0	102 7 0	109 0 0	111 2 0	106 9 0	102 7 0	109 0 0	111 2 0	106 9 0	106 9 0
at varying ex- ..	0 6 6	0 6 2	0 5 11½	0 6 0	0 5 11½	0 5 7½	0 5 9½	0 5 6½	0 5 8½	0 5 7½	0 5 8½	0 5 9½	0 5 6½	0 5 8½	0 5 8½	0 5 9½	0 5 6½	0 5 8½	0 5 7½
Sight rate of exchange ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
on London ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
per ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Haikwan tael ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

* The prices here given are the average of all grades of tea as extracted from customs statistics. If attention were confined to common Congou, prices would show a much greater depreciation.

TABLE showing Fluctuations in Prices of Commodities Produced in China and Exported to Foreign Countries during the Years 1870-92—continued.

Articles.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.
	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.
Silk, raw, No. 4, Tealee ..	31.05	30.15	36.10	34.75	34.20	37.40	35.00	33.50	33.20
" wild ..	45.81	45.98	51.37	45.01	51.83	54.73	50.86	44.40	45.00
" cocoons ..	45.42	45.00	65.05	56.39	56.57	55.90	74.00	53.37	64.90
" refuse ..	49.40	52.60	45.50	64.30	59.35	51.50	56.60	53.77	46.58
" piece goods ..	50.30	44.30	62.45	53.32	53.57	53.86	51.80	52.70	52.60
Tea, black* ..	14.80	16.39	16.74	15.13	15.39	16.30	17.80	20.75	18.68
" green ..	21.75	19.41	18.41	16.49	19.52	19.10	18.60	17.15	18.50
" brick ..	6.05	5.40	6.14	6.98	5.95	7.18	7.20	7.08	7.46
Cassia lignea ..	8.36	2.85	3.13	4.74	4.76	4.61	5.71	5.80	6.48
Peas and beans ..	0.89	0.90	1.02	0.90	1.06	1.26	1.26	1.18	1.04
Hides, cow ..	11.45	12.63	12.77	11.95	9.87	9.88	8.19	7.81	8.20
Nutgalls ..	9.49	9.40	9.86	9.93	9.95	10.04	10.05	9.33	11.90
Camphor ..	7.86	9.35	11.25	9.07	8.64	8.90	15.00	15.08	17.30
Rhubarb ..	9.98	9.98	9.85	9.99	9.82	8.56	9.96	9.00	7.91
China ware ..	2.77	3.05	2.95	4.84	2.58	2.38	2.63	3.32	4.00
Strawbraid ..	25.00	24.50	25.30	24.75	24.90	23.00	25.00	20.37	23.56
Wool ..	7.74	7.63	9.39	8.18	8.00	9.14	8.66	8.22	8.90
Total trade in silver ..	343.12	339.52	337.28	366.73	375.96	373.68	398.32	367.73	381.21
Equivalent in gold at varying exchange ..	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
95 15 0	89 17 0	96 16 0	88 12 0	88 2 0	88 6 0	88 6 0	103 6 0	90 8 0	82 12 0
Sigat rate of exchange on London per Haikwan tael ..	0 5 7	0 5 3½	0 5 0	0 4 10	0 4 8½	0 4 3½	0 5 2½	0 4 11	0 4 4

* The prices here given are the average of all grades of tea as extracted from customs statistics. If attention were confined to common Congou, prices would show a much greater depreciation.

Annex C.—TABLE showing Fluctuations in Prices of Commodities of Foreign Origin Imported for Chinese Consumption during the Years 1870–92.

Articles.	Average Value for Years 1870–74.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.
		H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.	H. taels.
Grey shirtings (38½ yds. by 39 ins., 7 lbs. avoird.) ..	Piece ..	1.43	1.28	1.12	1.19	1.16	1.15	1.23	1.17	1.10
Drills, English (40 yds. by 30 ins., 14 lbs. to 15 lbs.) ..	" ..	2.50	1.98	1.75	1.71	1.80	1.95	1.90	1.80	1.76
T-cloths (medium, 7 lbs.) ..	" ..	1.86	1.26	1.17	1.11	1.18	1.14	1.10	1.09	1.08
Drills, American (40 yds. by 30 ins.) ..	" ..	3.26	2.70	2.54	2.48	2.49	2.61	2.70	2.70	2.84
Cotton yarn, English..	10 piece..	2.85	3.00	2.80	2.33	2.40	2.50	2.55	2.56	2.47
Lastings (30 yds. by 31 ins.) ..	Piece ..	9.62	9.36	9.18	8.74	8.15	8.20	8.22	5.52	6.48
Iron, nail rod (Dawes' best) ..	" ..	2.82	2.34	2.21	1.84	1.87	2.04	1.80	1.96	1.95
Lead, L.B., English..	" ..	4.66	6.10	5.18	4.25	4.40	4.17	3.90	3.67	3.87
Tin-plates ..	" ..	5.18	4.23	4.19	3.60	4.60	4.65	3.60	3.45	3.78
Copper slabs, Japan ..	" ..	4.16	4.50	4.18	3.56	3.53	3.93	3.76	3.90	3.94
Window-glass ..	Box ..	2.40	2.21	2.12	1.90	2.01	2.21	2.11	2.36	2.40
Kerosene oil (Devos's) ..	Case ..	2.80	1.60	1.60	1.56	1.45	1.29	1.35	1.24	1.20
Total ..	..	43.09	40.70	38.04	34.27	34.94	35.84	34.22	31.42	31.87

SHANGHAI.

TABLE showing Fluctuations in Prices of Commodities of Foreign Origin Imported for Chinese Consumption during the Years 1870-92—continued.

Articles.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.
	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.	H. tael.
Grew shirtings (38½ yds. by 39 ins., 7 lbs. avoird.)	Piece ..	1.09	1.11	1.06	1.10	1.16	1.02	0.98	1.01
Drills, English (40 yds. by 30 ins., 14 lbs. to 15 lbs.)	" ..	1.86	1.95	1.83	1.81	1.95	1.88	1.80	1.86
T-cloths (medium, 7 lbs.)	" ..	1.07	1.05	1.07	1.16	1.06	1.05	1.04	1.01
Drills, American (40 yds. by 30 ins.)	" ..	2.21	2.25	2.25	2.34	2.43	2.43	2.43	2.26
Cotton yarn, English	" 1 piece.	2.30	2.20	2.20	2.40	2.30	2.00	2.07	2.00
Lastings (30 yds. by 31 ins.)	Piece ..	6.45	6.75	6.30	7.14	6.30	6.30	6.45	6.50
Iron, nail rod (Davies' best)	" ..	1.92	1.89	1.84	1.77	2.02	2.16	1.98	2.00
Lead, L.B., English	" ..	3.00	3.43	3.84	3.84	4.46	3.72	3.55	3.46
Tin-plates	" ..	3.97	3.51	3.60	3.43	3.61	3.70	3.10	3.33
Copper slabs, Japan	" ..	3.73	3.00	2.82	2.79	4.15	3.40	3.40	3.40
Window-glass	Box ..	2.25	2.46	2.12	2.08	2.16	2.25	2.11	2.10
Kerosene oil (Devoc's)	Case ..	1.26	1.21	1.07	1.14	1.35	1.28	1.09	1.03
Total	..	31.11	30.88	30.00	31.00	32.94	30.99	29.97	29.96

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My Lord

Bogota, December 26, 1893.

I HAVE the honour to enclose herewith two very interesting reports that have been kindly given me for publication, if it be thought desirable, by Mr. Thomson, who was formerly Superintendent of the Jamaica Botanical Gardens. That gentleman, commissioned by the Minister of Public Works privately, was lately engaged in studying the agricultural capabilities of the districts surrounding the Sierra Nevada of Santa Marta, and the reports in question are the result of his investigations. The first report deals chiefly with the cultivation of the wild species of cacao in conjunction with bananas, whilst the second is concerned with the substitution of various species of the indigenous indiarubber tree for the valueless trees at present used to shade the cacao plant. It also points out the advantages to be derived from the combined cultivation of cacao, bananas, and indiarubber. Moreover, in Mr. Thomson's opinion, there are many slopes of the Sierra Nevada on which coffee could profitably be cultivated on a large scale.

In view of the liberal laws concerning unoccupied lands, it is probable that a company with a moderate capital could find advantageous investments in the district dealt with by Mr. Thomson, where in many places, side by side with the culture already enumerated, cattle could profitably be bred for exportation to the West Indian Islands.

The climate in the cacao-growing districts is undoubtedly not suitable for northern European labour, but there is nothing in the Immigration Laws to prevent a company from introducing southern European or negro labour. On the slopes of the mountains, where the coffee plant flourishes, the climate is healthy, and plantations might be so selected as to enable the European superintendents to build their houses above the sultry plains in an agreeable and healthy atmosphere.

The Central Government are most anxious to afford every
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facility for the introduction of the labour and capital needed to develop the great agricultural wealth of the districts within reach of the northern coasts. Unfortunately Congress, engaged in political discussions, could find no time to consider two Bills brought before it for the purpose last year. One of those Bills would have authorised the introduction of Chinese coolies, whilst the other was to sanction a contract for the establishment in the country of 10,000 Italian immigrants. These two Bills will, I am told, again be laid before Congress in the session that opens in July next.

It will be observed that Mr. Thomson concludes his second report by the statement that "the wealth of the Sierra Nevada region throws into the shade all the Antilles."

I have, &c.

(Signed) G. JENNER.

Report on an Excursion to the Sierra Nevada de Santa Marta to Investigate the Cultural Capabilities of the District.

Proceeding from the seaport town of Rio Hacha to the village of Dibulla along and in close proximity to the beach, the vegetation consists to a large extent of cacti and dwarf thorny leguminous trees, which latter at the end of the dry season are mostly devoid of foliage. The direction to Dibulla is almost due west, and the distance about 30 miles. From Rio Hacha a large plain extends some 30 miles towards the eastern extremity of the Sierra Nevada. The western extension of this plain, bounded by the Caribbean Sea and the Sierra Nevada, gradually diminishes in width to some 5 miles as it approaches Dibulla, and this contraction of the plain coincides with the rapid ascent of this system of mountains, that is, from a few hundred feet at its eastern limits to the magnificent summits near Dibulla covered with perpetual snow. Still farther westward this narrow plain extends, with the exception of several transverse ridges, about 40 miles towards Santa Marta, where the ramifications of steep mountains project into the sea.

The broad Rio Hacha plain, excepting on the lands within a few miles of the mountains, is a comparatively arid region, having a scrubby parched vegetation. Throughout this plain, it may be mentioned, 4,000 tons of divi-divi are collected annually for export, besides as much more left on the ground to rot. On this plain another plant grows wild in great profusion (many millions), viz., henequen ("agave rigida").

From Dibulla on the seaside to the base of the Cordillera the plain ascends to about 150 to 300 feet. It is covered with forest, as are the slopes of the mountains up to 8,000 and 10,000 feet, the exception being some considerable clearings between 3,000 and 8,000 feet in the Arauja Indian district. In

close proximity to the sea the soil is largely composed of sand, but on receding a mile therefrom a deep loamy soil on a flat swampy belt affords a congenial site for a magnificent forest of palms—an impressive scene of tropical luxuriance. From these palms to the foot of the hills the forest consists chiefly of huge exogenous trees growing somewhat widely apart for a tropical forest; together with an exceptionally thick undergrowth. Many rivers and innumerable quebradas (ravines) connected therewith cross the plain. Here, too, the soil, over which a blue limestone abounds, is extremely rich and fertile. It was here, about two miles from the base of the hills, that I first observed the cacao tree.

The important fact with regard to these trees is that they are of spontaneous growth, and therefore wild cacao, the original *Theobroma cacao*. Still nearer the hills I found the tree dispersed on all sides.

At another point, some half-a-dozen miles to the westward, while crossing the plain in the direction of the highest summits of the Sierra Nevada, this wild cacao I found to be a predominating, or characteristic, species of the forest undergrowth. Here I traversed a zone of cacao not less than 8 miles wide, thus distributed on the plain as well as on the lower slopes of the numerous spurs of the mountains ranging from 300 to 1,300 feet above the level of the sea.

At Don Diego and still further to the west, a distance of about 40 miles from Dibulla, cacao is found in the forest under precisely the same conditions as those described. And I am assured that all along the base of the Cordillera to Trienta, where the eastern extension of the Sierra Nevada disappears, cacao equally abounds. Thus a continuous distribution from beyond Don Diego to Trienta of about 100 miles. This great cacao zone is entirely uninhabited, and the lands, though obtainable for a few reals* per hectare, "terras baldias" (unoccupied lands), are unsought for, their value being wholly unknown. Moreover, the existence of wild cacao seems to have escaped attention.

Under the dense shade of the great forest trees 80 feet high, with trunks 5 and 6 feet in diameter, the cacao presents an aspect totally unlike its cultivated congener. The matured cacao trees attain a height of from 35 to 45 feet, with slender trunks devoid of branches to within a few feet of the top; and these trunks are as straight as those of a palm tree. All the mazorcas (pods), with few exceptions, are borne among the sparsely foliated branches at the summit. Besides the full-grown trees, others exist in all stages of growth, hundreds being scattered over a hectare of land. The excessive shade has imparted a weird and ill-proportioned appearance to these trees, many of which, drawn up towards the gleams of light, are not thicker than a walking-stick though 20 feet high. Not only have these

* At the present exchange a real is worth about 2d.

cacao trees to struggle under the unpropitious shade of gigantic trees, they have also to contend with numerous minor rivals—an aggregation of species which constitute a tropical undergrowth.

The productive capacity of these trees is very variable; some, more favourably situated, yield as much as 10 and 12 lbs. of cured cacao, but the great majority yield insignificant returns. It is to be regretted that trees with good crops of fruit are very frequently cut down, this being the easiest means for securing the crop.

Among the cacao trees there is no variation whatever in the general form and size of the fruit. The predominating colour is yellow, though mazorcas (pods) of a reddish hue are not uncommon. It is interesting to note that the seeds on section are perfectly white. All are undoubtedly one true specific type, a fact of great interest to cacao planters, for apart from the advantages of identity in the process of fermentation, new varieties must eventually evolve either by variation or by cross-fertilisation.

Several attempts have been made to bring these wild trees to a state of cultivation. I understand that the first efforts in this direction originated at La Loma many years ago. This attempted cultivation has been confined to the removal of the thick undergrowth which surrounds the cacao tree, and afterwards, at intervals of a year or more, cutting down the weeds that spring up. The result of these operations, though effecting some improvement in the production of fruit, cannot be considered satisfactory, for the great obstacle to the development of the plant, namely, excessive shade, remains intact. However, by the operations in question, some relief has supervened; but the advantage gained is immaterial when it is remembered that 10,000 full-grown trees yield only 1,200 lbs. of cacao per annum. Though some of these trees yield excellent results, the great majority of them are practically non-productive.

At a distance of about 2 miles from La Loma an industrious Frenchman has taken up the reclamation of the wild cacao on the lines adopted on that property. He has during two years cleared the undergrowth over more than 100 hectares, leaving the large forest trees; thus the cacao trees, which formed a part of this undergrowth, have been carefully preserved; and, moreover, one or two experiments are being initiated, such as supplying vacancies where the wild cacao plants were wanting, and topping trees of moderate size in order to induce them to branch at a convenient height. Notwithstanding these trials, it seems impossible to concieve trees which have emerged from the conditions of forest life accommodating themselves to the changed habits requisite to bring them into a state of remunerative productiveness as is the case with systematically cultivated cacao, for cultivated trees from the outset are made to flourish. Having been particularly requested to give my opinion as to the prospects of this enterprise, my reply was not encouraging. I, however,

suggested as a remedial measure the destruction of some of the large forest trees at given intervals, so as to command more light. With a more abundant admission of light no doubt some benefit would accrue, but the advantages attendant upon the establishment of scientifically-formed plantations would far outweigh that derived from such partial improvements.

It is well known that cacao under cultivation is a shade-loving plant. Nevertheless, in many instances protection from the sun is not absolutely necessary. A medium well-regulated shade is what the cacao planter should carefully establish. In Trinidad, whence more than 20,000,000 lbs. of cacao are exported annually, two species of the genus "erythrina" are employed for this purpose. These are planted widely apart among the cacao trees, and answer the purpose well.

In addition to the attempts at cultivation already referred to, similar trials are being made on a considerable scale at Don Diego, and by another party elsewhere.

The form of the pod, besides being smaller, is quite distinct from the more elongated types of criollo and foresters, the most prized varieties under cultivation in Trinidad and Venezuela.

Though the pods in the wild type are considerably smaller than those of the best cultivated forms, it is noteworthy that in the former the seeds are larger and the pods more economically filled; thus 10 and 11 pods yield 1 lb. of cured cacao. This result will be best exemplified by the following comparison with Trinidad cacao.

According to a treatise on cacao cultivation and curing recently issued by the Botanical Department of Trinidad, the entire contents (seeds, pulp, &c.) within the forest pod as cultivated in that island, when weighed, amount to just about 4 ounces, and "the pulp surrounding the seed, with the placenta, weighs nearly the same as the cleaned kernel." Thus in the Trinidad pod the seeds weighed 2 ounces, whereas the wild cacao seeds, similarly divested of the extraneous matter, weighed 3 ounces, the waste matter surrounding the seeds being considerably less than that appertaining to the Trinidad seeds.

We have, then, in the wild cacao not only smaller pods, but also an enhanced productive capacity. Besides, the superfluous pulp in the cultivated varieties is a source of inconvenience to the planter: "The pulp cannot be removed by washing before fermentation, and even after the decomposition caused by fermentation it is somewhat hard to remove." Under the favourable circumstances referred to, namely, smaller pods, and these more economically filled, consequent on the diminution of the waste matter, the wild plant, not only on practical grounds, but also on physiological principles, is capable of yielding larger crops than are obtained from the varieties in cultivation. Hence the importance of the propagation and establishment of plantations of this the original type.

In Trinidad and other cacao-growing countries great import-
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ance is attached to fermentation, as this operation imparts the requisite colour and consistence to the article. On the other hand, the method of curing the insignificant crops gathered on the plains of the Sierra Nevada is primitive in the extreme. Sometimes the pods unopened are simply put to dry in the shade until the seeds become fit for use, sometimes the seeds are wrapped in large leaves for a week and then dried in the sun, and sometimes the seeds when extracted from the mazorcas are placed in a barrel for three days and then dried, the barrel containing the cacao being placed under a roof without side-walls. Compare these simple operations with the elaborate processes at work in Trinidad, where special houses and compartments are deemed necessary. Here is a brief quotation from the "First Prize Essay" on cacao fermentation in Trinidad (Government award):—"This sweating (fermenting) must not be regarded either as a simple process; on the contrary, it includes more or less the secondary fermentations, such as lactous, butyric, mucous, and putrefactive or eremacausis." Notwithstanding these elaborate preparations the wild cacao, as has been demonstrated by frequent exports of several quintals, holds its ground, for it was classed in the Paris market with the best Caracas brands.

Trinidad holds the first position among British colonies with regard to cacao production. But recently Ceylon has stolen a march upon the West Indian colony by the realisation of far higher prices, brought about partly by excessive washing, and consequently thorough removal of the pulp, a method, however, that reduces considerably the weight of the produce, and partly by propagating exclusively from one or two well-defined forms. Anyhow a difference of 30 per cent. in favour of the Ceylon produce is a remarkable event. Of course the Trinidad planter is not insensible to this achievement on the part of his colonial brother in the East; hence strenuous efforts are being made to improve the quality of this the greatest industry of the island. Lands for cacao cultivation in Ceylon are not available to any great extent. But it is no exaggeration to say that if the lands occupied by the wild cacao at the Sierra Nevada were obtainable in that colony such lands would be bought up at once for more than 100 dol. (paper) per hectare.*

The treatise on cacao above referred to says of Trinidad:—"If land can be found on the banks of a stream or river where there is considerable depth of alluvial deposit, such a position, if capable of being well drained, is a sure source of wealth to the cacao planter." This is tantamount to saying that such ideal sites do not abound. How infinitely superior are the innumerable sites for plantations at the foot of the Sierra Nevada, sites which nature has disclosed.

In two reports of mine, published by the Colombian Government, I strongly advocated the introduction of cacao seeds from Trinidad with the view of ameliorating the degenerated plantations of the interior. The result of my excursion to the Sierra

* About 82. at the present exchange.

Nevada, as reviewed in this report, completely nullifies my former impressions as to the advisability of importing these seeds; now the conditions are reversed, the wild cacao being "par excellence" the kind for cultivation throughout the Republic.

In those countries in which this product has become a staple the yield per tree hardly averages $1\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. With our wild cacao I feel sure that under careful cultivation that average can be doubled, though in making an estimate of returns I prefer to curtail this prospective average. The cacao planters of Tolima, where millions of lbs. are cropped, annually obtain an average of little more than $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. per tree. Hence the replanting of the degenerated fields of the interior, as well as the extension of this cultivation, with seeds from the Sierra Nevada, is a measure the importance of which cannot be overrated. Arrangements could be made for the acquisition of these precious seeds on a large scale. On this point I may add that, on my recommendation, a gentleman who is planting cacao largely among his highly cultivated banana plantations near Santa Marta has already taken steps to obtain a supply of seeds of the wild type.

During my sojourn on the Sierra Nevada I visited a roza (cultivated field), on which a few trees of the wild type were under cultivation. These are old trees, growing at the considerable altitude of 3,100 feet above the sea, and they are fully exposed to the sun. The owner assured me that he frequently obtains a crop of 12 lbs. cured cacao from a tree. Unlike their congeners in the forest the cultivated plants are well furnished with branches from the lower part of the trunks.

The cacao planter at the coast directs his attention exclusively to the production of this commodity for export, whilst the cacao planter of Tolima and other interior provinces finds a ready market on the spot in consequence of the large domestic consumption. The latter planter, indeed, commands an abnormally high price owing to the supply not adequately meeting the demand; thus prices actually rule higher than in Europe. The planter at the coast, however, possesses the great advantage of cheap transport to the markets of Europe, an advantage equivalent to some 3 pesos (about 5s.) per arroba (25 lbs.).

From the foregoing observations it will be seen that my convictions are in no way favourable to the irregular and ungenial attempts at cultivation being pursued with the wild cacao in the forest. No doubt some improvement could be effected by cutting down large forest trees at given intervals, but even in this case I cannot anticipate results at all comparable to those obtainable from well-devised practical methods involving the clearance of the entire forest so as to form new plantations, and this, too, not with the natural seedlings of the forest but with specially propagated plants obtained from the wild stock.

The latitude of this wild cacao zone is just over 11 degrees. Consequently the following extract from "Humboldt's Personal Narrative of Travels" is peculiarly interesting:—"The tree which produces the cacao is not at present found wild in the

forests of Terra Firma to the north of the Orinoco; we began to find it only beyond the cataracts of Ature and Maypure. It abounds particularly near the banks of the Ventuari, and on the Upper Orinoco, between the Padoma and the Gehette. This scarcity (? absence) of wild cacao trees in South America, north of the latitude of 6 degrees, is a very curious phenomenon of botanical geography and yet little known. This phenomenon appears the more surprising, as, according to the annual produce of the harvest, the number of trees in full bearing in the cacao plantations of Caracas, Nueva Barcelona, Venezuela, Varinas, and Maracaibo is estimated at more than 16,000,000. The wild cacao tree has many branches, and is covered with a tufted and dark foliage. It bears a very small fruit, like that variety which the ancient Mexicans called 'thalcacahuatl.' Transplanted into the Conucos of the Indians of Cassiquiare and the Rio Negro, the wild tree preserves for several generations that force of vegetable life which makes it bear fruit in the fourth year."

The question of selecting a tree to afford shade to the cacao plantations is extremely important. As we have seen, a useless tree is planted for this purpose in Trinidad and elsewhere. In the earlier stages of the plantations maize, bananas, &c., suffice for shade. Later on, a tree of rapid growth with a semi-umbrageous habit is required. In Colombia there are various species of indigenous caucho (rubber) which merit the attention of cacao planters. I understand that a valuable species easily propagated grows on the banks of the Rio Sinu. This, as well as other kinds of caucho, should be tried. Zarrapia ("dipterix odorata"), indigenous in the llanos, is another tree worthy of attention. The establishment of economic shade trees, destined to yield important subsidiary crops, is a matter of the utmost consequence to the progressive development of the cacao enterprise in this country. I may here mention that I called the attention of several of the gentlemen engaged in banana and cacao cultivation near Santa Marta, to the utility of substituting such shade for the ill-adapted trees they have chosen, one of which being "*Pithecolobium saman*."

Reference has been made to the cultivation of cacao in conjunction or intermixed with the banana. This latter has now become an established industry at Rio Frio, where the plantations are being constantly extended with commendable enthusiasm. Though the industry is in its initial stage a steamship is despatched fortnightly from Santa Marta with a full cargo comprising from 13,000 to 15,000 bunches. The plantations present a most luxuriant aspect, the result of admirable cultivation—a cultivation in which irrigation plays an important part. Throughout hundreds of hectares of these plantations cacao has been planted contemporaneously with the banana. The overpowering growth of the latter, however, has checked to some extent its less exuberant companion, which has consequently suffered. Besides, in the hurry of cropping the banana, cutting them down, &c., the cacao is often injured. The progress made

by much of this cacao in the course of four years is hardly greater than should be attained in two years were the plant grown under congenial circumstances. As a means of alleviating the cacao I have made the suggestion to establish the plants in nurseries, there to be transplanted several times until they become vigorous and several feet high, at which stage they can be safely transferred to the plantation; also for the general welfare of the cacao I recommend that the bananas be set at greater distances apart so as to ensure more adequate light and free circulation of air.

It will thus be seen that the establishment of the two products conjointly presents some difficulties. Both are planted equidistantly. At Rio Frio a modification of the present system would no doubt prove a preventive to the injury sustained by the young cacao trees. At the same time it must not be assumed that cacao will flourish with its wonted vigour when cultivated conjointly with a plant that is in some degree antagonistic; in other words, the cacao is suppressed in the shadow of a stately mass of great banana leaves. On this account probably the cultivation of the banana among cacao should be limited to three years.

Report on the Cultural Capabilities of the Sierra Nevada of Santa Marta.

With reference to my visit to the Sierra Nevada of Santa Marta in the month of May last, I now furnish another report on its cultural capabilities, especially with regard to the banana and caucho (rubber) cultivation on the plains, and coffee on the hills.

Barranco.—This large property, the cultural resources of which indicate those of the entire plain, is situated midway between Rio Hacha and Dibulla. It extends from the sea, by which it is bounded, towards the foot of the Cordillera. The Rio Enea forms the western boundary along about 9 miles of its course. This river is navigable for small craft throughout the year. The area of the property amounts to 18,092 fanegados—more than 26,000 acres. For general cultural purposes the best lands on this property are located several miles distant from the sea where many thousands of acres are well adapted for cacao, banana, rubber and other valuable products.

In proximity to the sea, the characteristic feature of the Barranco lands answers the description conveyed in my letter of June 26:—"The Rio Hacha plain, with the exception of the lands within a few miles of the mountains, is a comparatively arid region, having a scrubby parched vegetation."

The cultivation of bananas on a commercial scale is a new industry in Colombia. Costa Rica and Jamaica are the principal sources whence the United States is supplied with this fruit. In Jamaica it is now the most important article of export, having in

recent years outstripped the former great staple industry—sugar. In 1889–90 the value of the bananas exported from that island was 446,974*l.*, the number of bunches being 4,729,037. In the following year 1890–91, the value increased to 638,974*l.*, the area under cultivation amounting to 9,097 acres. Now that this industry has been fairly inaugurated in Colombia, the rich soil on the plains of the Sierra Nevada may well vie with Jamaica, indeed, judging from the large extent of cultivation already established at Rio Frio, this new enterprise claims a position amongst competitors. At Rio Frio irrigation is resorted to, the locality being subject to prolonged droughts, but the influence of irrigation is abundantly demonstrated by the remarkably luxuriant aspect of the plantations, and the splendid crops of fruit. Already some 13,000 bunches are being exported fortnightly, and this number will be greatly increased shortly.

As to the fertile lands of the inland portions of Barranco, no more eligible region for the cultivation of bananas is conceivable. Here, near the base of the mountains covered with forest the climate is humid, consequently irrigation is unnecessary. In the event, however, of exceptional droughts the fine Rio Enea can be turned to account with the utmost facility. It is essentially requisite that a sufficient area be planted with bananas so as to maintain a steamship service fortnightly, as is the case at Santa Marta, for it is found that crops of this fruit are fit for cutting every fortnight, and if not accordingly cut, great loss ensues. A steamer carries from 13,000 to 20,000 bunches. To maintain a fortnightly service some 300 hectares of bananas would have to be established. This extent of cultivation (750 acres) represents one-twelfth of the total area under cultivation in Jamaica, and correspondingly, one-twelfth of the value of the Jamaica crop, viz., 53,248*l.* This latter sum is, therefore, the value of the banana crop obtainable from 300 hectares, 177*l.* per hectare, in that island. This estimate of returns may safely be taken as a criterion for the productive capacity of the Barranco lands.

At Rio Frio the estimate for preparing the land and cultivation, including irrigation, until the plant becomes productive at about the end of a year, is from 150 pesos to 200 pesos* per hectare.

In my previous report I referred to the cultivation of rubber as a shade tree for cacao in lieu of the useless tree everywhere employed for this purpose. Under this system of cultivation the rubber is distinctly a subsidiary product, cacao being the primary object. For the purpose of affording shade the rubber trees are set widely asunder, some twenty to the acre, thus on a cacao plantation of, say, 302 hectares (750 acres), 15,000 rubber trees.

The importance of rubber cultivation is universally admitted. I will therefore propound a scheme for its cultivation on a principle that will ensure the production of rubber under the most advantageous circumstances. My proposal is to form systematically planted rubber and banana plantations both to occupy

* 12*l.* to 16*l.* at present exchange.

the same land, and to be duly interplanted in accordance with the requirements of the respective plants. No difficulty stands in the way of carrying out this dual cultivation, neither plant possessing any predominant influence injurious to the other, at any rate during the first 5 years, after which smaller crops amounting to from 10 per cent. to 20 per cent. may be placed against the bananas.

The rubber tree is set much wider apart than cacao is among bananas, and after 3 years' cultivation it will have attained a height exceeding the bananas.

The two plants may be cultivated in comparisonship for some 10 years until the rubber begins to yield crops. We have thus a great plantation of rubber resulting from banana cultivation, a plantation ready to yield a precious commercial substance just at the time when the banana may be said to have run its full course of productiveness. With the different important species which it is advisable to establish, an average of about 90 trees per acre will result, consequently a plantation having an area of 300 hectares would contain 67,500 trees.

Between the tenth and twelfth years the rubber trees would yield returns sufficient to cover the then current cost of their cultivation.

Between the twelfth and twentieth years each tree would yield at least 2 lbs.* per tree annually. Subsequently, and for more than half a century, it is quite safe to estimate the returns at double the foregoing, that is, 4 lbs. per tree. From 67,500 trees, or better to say 60,000—allowing for unsatisfactory specimens—2 lbs. per tree would be harvested annually, or 4 lbs. bi-annually. From the twelfth to the twentieth years, therefore, we have an annual crop from 60,000 trees of not less than 120,000 lbs., which at 2s. per lb., or 4s. per tree yearly, amounts to 12,000*l*. Deduct from this for working expenses, say, 3,000*l*. Hence a net profit of 9,000*l*. per year. From the twentieth year onwards, 24,000*l*. per year would be realised from the crops, less for working expenses, &c., 6,000*l*., thus a net profit of 18,000*l*. per year.

It is to be hoped that this highly important product will be taken up on a very much larger scale than is here indicated, viz., 120,000 lbs. per year. By way of illustration I would mention that in Ceylon there are several tea plantations each of which produces more than 500,000 lbs. of tea per year. And dozens of plantations aggregate more than 200,000 lbs. each. Some of these plantations have more than 1,000 acres, each in tea, and as much more in other cultures.

Forty years ago the consumption of rubber was quite insignificant, now the United States and England each import about 15,000 tons, valued at more than 30,000,000 dol.

Brazil, the greatest of rubber-producing countries, has not yet inaugurated systematic planting. In the more accessible and

* Mr. Morris, the Assistant-Director of Kew Gardens, says the *Castilleja* trees at 10 years old yield 4 lbs. to 7 lbs. of rubber.

inhabited districts some commendable efforts are being made to conserve the tree after it is tapped, but beyond these accessible limits the irregular distribution of the plant, together with its remoteness, precludes the possibility of the general adoption of this conservation; from which system, moreover, only small crops are obtained after the first general extraction. Hence the necessity of resorting to systematic cultivation.

The enterprising planters of Ceylon have been the pioneer cultivators of rubber. Difficulties and disappointments have been experienced, for everything had to be found out by experiments. It may be noted, for instance, that some of these shrewd planters even went the length of growing and commending the cultivation of the Ceará rubber tree as a shade for cacao, the climatic conditions requisite for each plant being absolutely dissimilar. Two years ago the area of all the species of rubber under cultivation in that colony was 454 acres.

According to report, rubber cultivation has been successfully initiated in Mexico, where the species experimented upon becomes productive in 5 or 6 years.

The Government of India has authorised the establishment of plantations of the species indigenous there, viz., *Ficus elastica*.

Colombia has likewise made a beginning with a valuable indigenous species planted near Chaparral at a height of about 6,000 feet above the sea; and it grows with remarkable rapidity.

The following extracts relative to rubber and its cultivation are culled from the most reliable sources:—

The Pará Rubber.—Dr. Zimen, the distinguished Director of the Ceylon Botanic Garden, in his report for 1890, says: "That the yield of rubber is improving as our trees get older, is evidenced by a further experiment made at Heneratgoda during the past year by the conductor. The tree selected was the same one as was tapped in 1888, the results of which were recorded in my report for that year. This is now 13 years old, and its stem girths 4 feet 11 inches at a yard above ground. It was tapped on 17 days: on 7 days in January and February, on 6 days in July and August, and on 4 days in November and December. The method followed was to smooth the surface by scraping off a little of the outer bark to a height easily reached, and then to make, with a $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch chisel, numerous V-shaped incisions. At the foot of the trunk cocoa-nut cups were fastened with clay, and the milk conducted into them by little ridges of clay. Most of the milk, however, dried on the tree in tears. The tapping was done in the afternoon and the rubber collected in the morning. From the tree (which yielded nearly 2 lbs. in 1888) we obtained this year 2 lbs. 10 ozs. of good dry rubber, partly in sheet, but mostly in tears. The tree appears none the worse for the operation, and I consider the result very encouraging. The whole cost of collection was under a rupee, and of course on operating on a large number of trees in a plantation this would be very greatly reduced."

Mr. Clements Markham, well known for his services in connec-

tion with cinchona introduction into India, &c., writing on the subject of the *Castilloa* rubber, a valuable species indigenous to Colombia and Central America, a species the Government of India had determined to introduce to that country, says: "Mr. R. Cross left England on May 2, 1875, and reached Panama on the 26th of the same month, my instructions to him being to make the collection on the isthmus He ascended the Chagres River in a canoe, and then made a journey on foot through the dense forest into the heart of the Ule district. He found the *Castilloa* saplings growing on the banks of streams with their roots often running down to the edge of the water. They abound in rich soil along the base of the hills, and are often met with on the summits of ridges; everywhere except in swampy ground. The trees which proved to be the species named by Mr. Collins, *Castilloa Markhamiana*, are from 160 feet to 180 feet high, with a diameter of 5 feet, and a yield of 100 lbs. of dry rubber."

The same writer in continuation of his observations relative to the valuable species of rubber, refers to the Ceará rubber (*Manihot Glaziovii*), plants of which Mr. Cross also procured for India. The following extract refers to the climatic and other conditions in which the plant grows:—"South of the Amazonian forest there is a region known as Sartao or wilderness, extending in a broad belt from the Parnahyba River to the São Francisco. The province of Ceará is within this belt, a high rolling plain, broken by abrupt elevations and chains which are, in fact, outlying fragments of the great central tableland of Brazil. The only high forest is found in these mountain sides, the summits and the plains below being occupied either by their forest growth, or by pastures and sandy tracts, with groves about the river courses. From June to December the climate is exceedingly dry, and the streams and rivers disappear except along the mountain sides." Mr. Cross himself in a letter to the Under Secretary of State for India, says:—"The Ceará tree is not delicate, and will grow and produce rubber in situations where other kinds of plants would be dried up. For these reasons, it is likely to prove a valuable plant in India in parched up regions and stony unproductive lands thinly covered with soil." Again, "Neither grass nor weeds grow under the trees."

As previously mentioned in these reports extensive tracts of this large plain (including Barranco) are distinguished by a scrubby parched vegetation. This is exactly the condition applicable to the requirements of the Ceará rubber tree, and it would be impossible to secure a more eligible district. In this connection I may mention that I have had opportunities of practically knowing the habits of this species, having many years ago introduced a few plants of it to Jamaica where I grew it in both humid and arid localities. I also introduced it to Colombia and planted it at Chaparral, in the wet soil and climate of which it perished. I may further mention that I introduced the Pará and the *Castilloa* rubber trees to Jamaica; now these are but denizens of the Botanic Garden.

The important point as regards this district is, that the "parched scrubby vegetation" covers the country so scantily that the Ceará rubber can be planted without the necessity of clearing the existing growth, that is to say, the seeds of this tree have merely to be set in the ground among the scrubs without any other preparation than sometimes chopping down with a cutlass a bush or two that may be in the way of sowing the seed. In this way the cost of planting an acre (200 to the acre) need not exceed 2 dol. The seeds germinate under certain conditions immediately, and spring up with wonderful rapidity, that is, in the course of a year they grow 6 feet to 10 feet. And for their subsequent cultivation, 2 dol. per acre per annum—a liberal allowance—would suffice. A thousand acres would contain 200,000 plants, and after 10 or 12 years, 1 lb. of rubber per tree would be harvested annually, or, say, only 150,000 lbs., a return that would be greatly enhanced later on. The quality of this rubber may be judged from the following:—"An authoritative report received from Messrs. Lewis and Peat valued a sample consignment of Ceylon Ceará at from 2s. 9d. to 2s. 10d. per lb." Again, "One sample parcel of Ceará rubber has, as previously mentioned, realised 4s. per lb."

At 1s. 6d. per lb. (a moderate price) the returns in the twelfth year from the sale of 150,000 lbs. of rubber would be 11,250*l*. Deduct from this amount for harvesting and transport expenses, 3,250*l*.; thus 8,000*l*., less for planting and up-keep during twelve years, at 6*l*. per acre (1,000 acres), 6,000*l*. From the twelfth year onwards the annual value or profit from the crop will be, after deducting 3,250*l*. for working expenses, 8,000*l*.

The three species of rubber I have referred to, comprise the most valuable commercial kinds of tropical America, and America stands pre-eminent in all that relates to rubber. The other best known kinds are *Ficus elástica* of India, and the *Landolphias* of Africa, species of secondary importance. Colombia possesses in the remote regions bounding the head waters of the Amazon and the Orinoco valuable, and at present scientifically unknown, species of rubber. In the territory of Caquetá, for instance, a highly valuable kind abounds. Hundreds of arrobas of this have been extracted from the locality, and this notwithstanding the extraordinary difficulty of transport. The high prices obtained for this rubber in New York sufficiently determine its quality. From what I have ascertained it is in all probability the produce of a *Hevea*, the Pará rubber genus. There is another important rubber tree found in large quantities on the llanos of San Martín. This sort is being exported to a considerable extent, roads or tracts having been made through the forest to facilitate its transport; this may be another species of *Hevea*, but from the description I have had of it it is probably not identical with the Pará species. Writing to the Secretary of State for India, a gentleman who has penetrated to the head waters of the Orinoco, says, "I found it (*Hevea*) very abundant high up on the Orinoco above the junction of the Guaviare." This points to the *Hevea*

being indigenous to Colombia. Another species is found on the banks of the Rio Sinu; this is probably the *Castilloa*. Seeds of all these kinds can no doubt be obtained in abundance. These brief allusions to the rubber species of Colombia, and there is another important kind that grows on the high mountains, point in a manner not to be mistaken to the unequalled, or, at least, unsurpassed resources of this country for rubber cultivation. In this connection it may not be amiss to add that it behoves tropical America to repel the following prediction of an eminent writer on tropical agriculture:—"Indeed there is every probability that in the long run, as with cinchona so with caoutchouc, it is upon systematic plantations in the Old World that we shall have to depend for our supply." This writer does not venture to reclaim coffee, which is a triumph of the New World. But even in the case of cinchona barks the Old World cannot grow them like the New; for those cultivated in Colombia are the richest in the world, notwithstanding that one of the species thus distinguished has actually been grown from poor East India seed. As to rubber no doubt the best quality will continuously come from tropical America.

There is one acknowledged difficulty that stands in the way of rubber cultivation. I refer to the long lapse of years before the crops are assured. From the point of view of a tropical planter, 10 or 12 years to wait for returns involves hesitation. On secondary thoughts this should be no real difficulty. Be this as it may, I have in this report planned a method calculated to overcome this objection, that is to say, the intervention of banana cultivation.

It has been shown that in the midst of a large banana plantation another great plantation can be simultaneously established, a plantation comprising various species of rubber, and this is practically exclusive of cost after their propagation. Also intimately associated with this latter undertaking, another great plantation of rubber (Ceará) can be created on adjacent waste lands at a minimum cost. Thus rubber plantations, respectively consisting of 67,500 and 200,000 trees, both of which are estimated to produce when 12 years old rubber valued at 17,000% a year. And 8 years later 26,000%. These estimates have been arrived at after careful consideration, always keeping in mind moderate estimates.

As these rubber plantations are to spring from the banana enterprise, the first step to be taken is to inaugurate this latter cultivation. 300 hectares being a large area, at least two years would be necessary for clearing and planting same. In these operations 200 dol. per hectare should be estimated; and subsequently for maintaining the plantations 100 dol. per hectare per annum. Also for superintendence, &c., 10,000 dol.*

A steam launch with barges would be required to carry the fruit down the river to the steamer lying off the land. And a few miles of light tramways should be constructed in parallel

* These sums indicate Colombian paper currency, at present 12½ dol. to the £. (1687)

sections through the plantation so as to facilitate the carriage of the fruit to the river.

The value of the crops, taking the Jamaica average before referred to, would be 177*l.* per hectare per annum; for 300 hectares, 53,248*l.*

Nearly all the work in connection with the plantations can be performed on the contract system, but as labour is not available on the spot a liberal rate of wages will have to be fixed in order to induce peons to settle on the property.

During the last few years coffee has become the most important article of export from Colombia, and its cultivation is rapidly assuming large dimensions. But the expansion of this cultivation is mostly confined to districts remote from the coast. In this important movement the Sierra Nevada with all its advantages of situation has taken no part, except perhaps at the point where this system of mountains is severed from the Andes. The slopes of the Cordillera as compared with those of the Andes are steep and precipitous in many parts. But numerous sites, in point of adaptability, equal to those available on the Andes may be selected here. Here coffee is placed in similar climatic conditions at 1,000 feet nearer the sea level to which it is on the mountains of the interior, from 5 to 7 degrees nearer the equator. At the foot of the Sierra Nevada where one or two small plantations are being formed, I observed at a height of only 200 feet above the sea one of these plantations yielding a fine crop to be harvested just when two years old.

Selections for sites should be made on the slopes of the mountains, not on the hot plains, at from 1,500 to 4,000 and 5,000 feet above the sea.

At a short distance from Barranco, but separated by the tractless forest, is situated Cueva, the mountain property appertaining to the former. Here some excellent sites rising to 5,000 feet are available for coffee. This cultivation in connection with the projected great plantations on the plains merits special consideration. Among other advantages that of locality is most favourable when it is remembered that 5 pesos per quintal (about 8*s.* per cwt.) is no uncommon price paid for the transport of coffee from the interior to the coast. Moreover, it is both interesting and useful to have in connection with and in the immediate vicinity of the hot plains another cultivation established in the genial temperature of the mountains.

On the lower sides as well as on the hot plains a different species of coffee, namely, the Liberian, would find a fitting home. This species is well worthy of extensive patronage.

Having dealt in this report with the utility of embarking upon the cultivation of some of the most valuable of tropical products, it should be also noted that other specific elements of wealth await development in this district, for instance, cattle farming has always been one of the most profitable investments in Colombia. Other precious products also claim attention, such as the extensive planting of cocoa-nuts, which after being planted

take care of themselves. Of cocoa-nut products Ceylon exported in 1890, in the form of fruit, oil, copperah, fibre, &c., to the value of 79,49,727 rupees. And a considerable proportion of this comes to the United States. Besides this extent of export, as an article of diet the produce of 16,000,000 nuts are consumed locally. It may also be mentioned that recently the manufacture of cocoa-nut butter has become a great industry in Germany.

In conclusion it may be observed that this region, the resources of which have been so favourably reviewed in this and in my previous report, is in itself phenomenally rich in spontaneously distributed vegetable products. If we turn to the large West India islands, with which in some respects it may be compared, for, presumably, it must have narrowly escaped becoming an island, being completely isolated from the Andes on the one side, and bounded by the ocean on the other, none of these has ever exhibited such expansive spontaneous indigenous wealth of vegetable commodities valuable to commerce. Thus apart from products of minor importance may be mentioned the occurrence of wild cacao in great profusion, divi-divi spread over the plains and yielding many thousands of tons of its legumes for annual export, and henequen (*Agave rigida*) capable of yielding fibre also to the extent of many thousands tons annually. These islands (plantation colonies) were first of all made prosperous by slavery, and by the almost exclusive production of sugar for which this slavery was begotten. But sugar-cane cultivation can no longer be pronounced the privileged product for adoption by these regions. Instead of that, cultivation for more lucrative objects to meet the demands of commerce are now allotted to this new region, the Sierra Nevada; the physical features of which, moreover, offer great contrasts to and throw into the shade all the Antilles.

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N^o. 317.
REPORTS ON SUBJECTS OF GENERAL AND
COMMERCIAL INTEREST.

COREA.

REPORT ON THE
CULTIVATION OF COTTON IN COREA.

*Issued during the Recess and Presented to both Houses of Parliament
by Command of Her Majesty.*

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*

No. 317.

COREA.

SÖUL.

Mr. O'Connor to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Pekin, August 3, 1893.

I HAVE the honour to enclose herewith to your Lordship a copy of a despatch from Mr. Hillier covering a Report on the Cultivation of Cotton in Corea.

I have, &c.
(Signed) N. R. O'CONOR.

Mr. Hillier to Mr. O'Connor.

Sir,

Söul, July 7, 1893.

I HAVE the honour to enclose some Notes on the Cultivation of Cotton in Corea, which have been kindly furnished to me by Mr. J. Hunt, Commissioner of Corean Customs at Fusan.

I have, &c.
(Signed) WALTER C. HILLIER.

Mr. Hunt to Mr. Hillier.

My dear Mr. Hillier,

Fusan, Corea, June 26, 1893.

In reply to your request for information as to the Production of Cotton in Corea, I have done my best to procure you the data you require, and have embodied the results of my investigations below.

It is, as you know, next to impossible to obtain reliable information from the natives, and most of my figures are based to a certain extent upon conjecture. As you will see in my Notes, I estimate the yearly consumption of cleaned or raw cotton in Corea at 300,000,000 lbs., and I base this estimate upon a

(1650)

A 2

population of, say, 12,000,000, with a consumption of 25 lbs. per head. I consider this a low estimate, for I find from statistics in the Cyclopædia of India that the East Indian people are supposed to consume 20 lbs. annually per head of the population, and I think we should be quite justified in doubling this estimate for Corea, where the winters are long and rigorous; but in order to err on the safe side, I base my calculations at the low estimate of 25 lbs.

I have, &c.
(Signed) J. H. HUNT.

Notes on the Cultivation of Cotton in Corea.

Area devoted
to cotton
growing.

The total area under cultivation throughout Corea is roughly computed to be 872,000 acres, and the aggregate quantity of seed cotton (*i.e.*, uncleaned cotton) produced per annum is set down as 1,200,000,000 lbs., at an average cost of 4 c. Mexican ($1\frac{1}{4}d.$) per lb. The bulk of this comes from the provinces of Whanghai, Cholla, and Kyengsang, where the climate and soil are most suitable to the growth of the plant. The yearly consumption of "cleaned" or raw cotton is roughly estimated at 300,000,000 lbs., and considering that the majority of Coreans use cotton almost exclusively, whereas Japanese and Chinese use furs, silk, and silk-waste considerably, I judge that this estimate is rather under than over-stated.

Consumption.

Taking the population at 12,000,000, it would give 25 lbs. of cotton a head, by no means an excessive amount where cotton enters so largely into every-day use as in Corea. The greater portion of the cotton is made into piece-goods for garments, and padding for winter clothing. Much of the cotton is also used for the padded socks worn both in summer and winter by the nobility and well-to-do classes—a custom peculiar to Corea. The Corean fibre is reported to be superior in durability and in warmth-giving qualities to that produced in Japan. A piece of the cloth as manufactured in this province (Kyengsang) usually measures 60 feet by 14 inches wide, weighs from 3 lbs. to 4 lbs., and varies in price from 80 c. to 1 dol. (about 2s. $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ to 2s. 8d.). The quantity of raw or cleaned cotton raised in this and the Cholla province is said to average 85 lbs. per acre, and of seed cotton 345 lbs. per acre.

Exports of
seed cotton
and cotton
cloth,
1888-92.

The following table gives the quantity and prices of seed cotton and cotton cloth exported to foreign countries (Japan) from the three Corean open ports (Jenchuan, Fusan, and Yuensan) during the years 1888-92:—

Year.	Seed Cotton.		Cotton Cloth.	
	Quantity.	Price per Lb.	Quantity.	Price per Lb.
	Lbs.	Cents.	Lbs.	Cents.
1888	45,200	2	5,425	26
1889	584,400	3	4,032	24
1890	905,900	3	763	25
1891	673,700	3	1,106	27
1892	157,800	2	35	29

No cotton thread was exported during these years, and no cleaned cotton (*i.e.*, cotton divested of its seed) was shipped abroad either then or previous to 1888.

The cloth sent to Japan is there made chiefly into bags used in the manufacture of soy, and for hospital mattress coverings.

(Of the three Korean ports, Yuensan consumes most of the native cotton piece-goods made in this and the Cholla province. An abnormally large crop of cotton is said to have been gathered in 1890, which statement the appended tables of import and export for that year serve to corroborate. The following table shows the import of raw cotton, cotton piece-goods, and cotton thread from foreign countries for the years 1888-92:—

Year.	Raw (Cleaned) Cotton.		Cotton Cloth, chiefly European.		Cotton Thread.	
	Quantity in Lbs.	Price per Lb.	Quantity in Pieces.	Price per Piece.	Quantity in Pieces.	Price per Piece.
1888	241,600	Dollar. 0·147	1,050,791	Dollars. 1·81	116,000	Dollar. 0·22
1889	191,500	0·149	827,942	1·99	140,000	0·22
1890	250,000	0·138	1,417,742	1·83	192,000	0·21
1891	511,600	0·110	1,606,828	1·83	277,000	0·21
1892	295,700	0·140	1,066,301	1·92	380,000	0·21

Grass and hemp cloth to some extent take the place of cotton during the summer months, and during periods of mourning, but as these fabrics are more expensive to produce than cotton cloth, their use is restricted to the above-mentioned occasions. As far as I have been able to learn, there is no tendency to mix cotton with other fibres. A fabric consisting of half silk and half cotton is manufactured in some parts of this province, but not in large quantities.

One may, I think, reasonably expect an increase in the production of cotton. Ground suitable for its growth is practically plentiful, and it needs but a steady market at remunerative prices to stimulate an extended cultivation. At present only a small percentage of the area available is utilised.

The plant, properly speaking, is not an annual, but it is found to be more profitable to uproot it after the crop is

Grass and hemp cloth.

Increase of production.

Methods of cultivation.

gathered, and sow new seed each year. The dead stalk is used for fuel, and its ashes finally for manure. The method of cultivation in Corea is much the same as in China. The ground is usually ploughed up during the early winter and allowed to remain in this condition until the frost is well out of it, when it is broken up with a hoe and manure composed of human excrement, mixed with wood ashes, spread over it. The fields are now ready for the reception of the seed, which is generally sown about April to May. The seed, of which, I am told, there is but one kind, is not placed in drills, as is done in Japan, but is sown broad cast, and then trodden in and covered up with the feet, sesamum seed being very often sown in the same field along with it. The young shoot shows above ground about the tenth day, and at maturity attains a height of from 2 feet to 2½ feet. The plant blossoms in August, and on an average bears 40 pods, each containing 4 cells, as a rule, within a double capsule. The gathering of the crop, which begins about October, continues until frost sets in, some time in November. The plant flourishes best in a sandy loam soil on the low hillsides, or in the valleys, in weather slightly moist from the sowing of the seed until it appears above ground and blossoms. After this dry weather is essential, rain checking the proper maturing of the fibre. No attention is paid or skill displayed in the cultivation once the seed is in the ground; everything is then left to nature. No further manure is added, nor are they ever thinned out or given water in times of drought. The crops are gathered by women principally, who also are largely employed afterwards in separating the seed. The instrument used by the natives in this process is the primitive roller-gin, but the Japanese in this settlement have recently introduced machines of the modern saw-gin type, and obtain 35 lbs. of clean from 140 lbs. of seed cotton a day. A native woman can with the roller-gin turn out per day about 3 lbs. of clean cotton from 12 lbs. of seed cotton, the generally estimated proportion in weight being 1 to 4. The spinning-wheel in common use all over Corea, unlike the western "Jenny," makes but one thread at a time. Before spinning the cotton is prepared in a similar manner to that in China, with the elastic bow, the string of which, being struck after it is passed under a quantity of cotton laid on a table, tosses the cotton into the air by its rebound, and so separates the staple without injury.

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No. 318.

COREA.

SÖUL.

Mr. O'Connor to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Pekin, August 3, 1893.

I VENTURED last May to authorise Mr. Hillier to visit the Ports of Fusan and Wönsan, on the east coast of Corea, with a view to his reporting on the commercial facilities and progress of trade in these Ports, and I have now the honour to enclose to your Lordship the very interesting Report which he has drawn up on this subject.

I have, &c.

(Signed) N. R. O'CONOR.

Mr. Hillier to Mr. O'Connor.

Sir,

Söul, July 3, 1893.

I HAVE the honour to lay before you the result of my enquiries into the commercial condition of the two Treaty Ports of Fusan and Wönsan, and the prospects that appear to exist of the Development of Trade there.

I have, &c.

(Signed) WALTER C. HILLIER.

Report on the Commercial Condition of the Ports of Fusan and Wönsan in the Year 1892.

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Fusan.

Visit to
Fusan and
Wönsan.
Commercial
condition.
No improve-
ment.

Commencing with Fusan, I regret to have no marked improvement to record since the date of my last visit of inspection two years ago. Certain new branches of industry have been opened, but the volume of trade shows no material increase, and is still to a great extent controlled by the condition of the harvest, and the demand for rice and other cereals from Japan. During my stay at the port, which lasted 7 days, I made careful enquiries into the causes which contribute to this want of elasticity, and I found that they may be practically reduced to three.

Want of
commercial
elasticity.
Three causes
of.

First, want of native capital and the absence of substantial native merchants; second, the exactions of the officials and the burdens laid upon industry; and lastly, the lack of energy displayed by the producing and labouring classes, who feel that it is useless to produce more than is absolutely necessary for their daily wants, as any surplus they might acquire would be seized by the officials.

Sale of office.
Only patrician
class can hold
high office.
No induce-
ment to
poorer classes
to improve
their position.

When it is remembered that every office in this country has to be bought, and that only members of the Niang-pan, or patrician class, can hold any but the lowest posts, it is evident that no member of the trading class has even the inducement to amass money for buying himself an official position, and so raising himself into the ranks of the aristocracy. Degrees of poverty of course exist, but it is doubtful whether any member of the trading class has a capital to his name which would meet the wants of the smallest shopkeeper at home, and it is a *sine qua non* with a Corean that he must receive an advance of money before he will undertake the execution of the most insignificant contract.

In addition to the numberless "squeezes" which an official is enabled to put upon the people under his jurisdiction there are tax-stations everywhere, at which goods in transit have to pay an impost. With the assistance of Mr. Hunt, the Commissioner of Customs, to whom I am indebted for much of the information contained in this report, I have been enabled to obtain an approximate list of the tax-stations in the Fusan province alone. There are said to be 17 recognised stations, at everyone of which all goods, native and foreign alike, have to pay a specified charge ranging from 1 per cent. ad valorem, in the case of foreign imports, to half that amount on commoner and less valuable commodities. On the Naktong River alone, which is the waterway to the capital of the province and chief feeder of the province itself, there are four tax-stations in a distance of 25 miles, and the port of Fusan itself is hedged round by a cordon of tax-stations within a 10 miles radius.

Manufactures are similarly taxed, and in the case of certain articles, notably cow-hides and seaweed, they are usually the monopoly of the officials, who, by payment of a sum of money to the Government, obtain, for a period, the right of purchasing at low prices all seaweed gathered in their locality and the hides of all animals slaughtered in their licensed slaughter-houses.

It may, in short, be stated that nothing is sold by a Korean without his first having to pay a tax, to which the name Ku-mun is given, to some Korean official, and that he can engage in no industry without paying ruinously for the privilege.

In addition to this he is at all times liable to be called upon for a day's labour for so-called Government purposes, which he can only evade by payment of a stated fine.

It may well be a matter of wonder under these circumstances how any trade can exist at all, but the Koreans have a remedy which they resort to when matters become utterly desperate. There seems to be a fairly well defined line of exaction beyond which no official can pass, and when this limit is reached the people rise in mass and request the official to leave. If he refuses, or does not give pledges for better behaviour, they proceed to pull his house about his ears, and in extreme cases to murder him. These demonstrations are invariably regarded by the central Government as an evidence of inefficiency on the part of the official concerned, and he is at once removed and his post sold to another applicant, little or no notice being taken of the action of the people.

It is curious that under such circumstances these demonstrations are not of more frequent occurrence, but apparently it is known that the recognised limit of concession must be reached if the agitators are to escape punishment. Under such restrictions it is remarkable that this port, or indeed any of the Korean ports, can maintain so large a number of Chinese and Japanese settlers; the Japanese at Fusan alone numbering about 5,000.

I have been at some pains to discover a solution of this problem, and I find that it is due in great measure to the fact

entirely stified.	that the Japanese, who are the chief exporters of rice and beans, upon the amount of which the import trade largely depends, are in the habit of advancing money on the growing crops and obtaining half the proceeds of the harvest. A foreign resident in this port who interests himself largely in trade questions informs me that, as a matter of experiment, he took up a mortgage on two fields, the interest on which was paid in kind, and that he found that the value of the crop, which was rice, with no pressure or supervision on his part, amounted to 50 per cent. annually on his outlay. This being the case, it is easy to see how such enterprising traders as the Japanese can make this class of business pay. They go up-country in the spring to bespeak their crops, and in the autumn to take them away, thereby evading the local taxes at the various barriers en route, and securing full payment of what is due to them. In good years their profits must be considerable, and even in bad ones their losses are trivial, as their advances are nothing approaching the actual value of the crops mortgaged to them. The yield on a Corean field in a good year is certainly 100 per cent. of the value of the land. Of this the farmer has to pay 20 per cent. in taxes and squeezes, leaving a substantial balance for personal consumption, but the cost of carriage, absence of roads, and taxes en route, combine to prevent him from exporting. It is only a fraction of land bordering on waterways, or in the vicinity of the ports, that supplies the export markets, and the vast tracts of uncultivated land that are everywhere to be seen testify to the capabilities of this country as a grain-producing area if the people were allowed a free hand and proper means of communication were established. To demonstrate this assertion I may mention that land in the vicinity of Fusan costs, for a barley field, about 5 dol. (13s. 9d.) for a plot 30 feet by 30 feet, and for a rice field (which will produce two crops, one of barley and one of rice, in the year) about 8 dol. (17. 2s.), while 10 miles distant from the port the cost of similar land is respectively 2 dol. (5s. 6d.) and 4 dol. (11s.).
Advance on the growing crops.	
Profits of farming. At least 50 per cent.	
Sometimes 100 per cent.	
Hindrance to export. Export market supplied from places where water com- munication exists. Uncultivated land.	
Japanese energy.	Waste ground can be cultivated by anyone who chooses to pay the local tax upon arable land. Under present conditions of administration any great expansion of trade appears hopeless, but if ever the time arrives when more enlightened ideas prevail, and this down-trodden people are given a fair chance, there should be a brilliant future before the country. It says much for the energy of the Japanese that they have managed to achieve so much, and they would achieve more if their treatment of the people were more generous and they were less grasping in the profits they expect to make on their enterprises. They have recently taken a step in the right direction by organising steamer communication on a small scale to non-treaty ports along the coast, but as they have to pay for the privilege of using the Corean flag, which their coasting steamers are obliged to display, and to make use, to a certain extent, of Corean agents, they are much hampered in their movements.
Inter-port trade.	
Deserves encourage- ment.	While the condition of the roads in the interior remains as

bad as it is, the Korean Government could do no wiser thing than to encourage the inter-port trade, which is growing annually and might be developed enormously.

The import trade in Fusan is almost entirely in Japanese hands. There are a few Chinese firms established in the port, but their arrogant treatment of the Koreans has ruined their business, and they are practically boycotted. Import trade in Japanese hands.

The piece-goods imported are chiefly of British origin, but miscellaneous articles, such as knives, scissors, matches, needles, agricultural implements, such as hoes, grass knives; iron cooking pans, nails; perfumes, soap, and so forth, are chiefly of Japanese origin, and the suggestion seems plausible; but whatever the cause may be, there is no doubt that foreign hardware and miscellaneous articles are being ousted by Japanese cheap labour. Even in the piece-goods market the Japanese are beginning to compete with a measure of success. They have carefully studied the wants of the people, and are introducing a fabric of coarse and strong texture which is specially popular amongst the women. Last year these goods represented one-fourth of the total import of foreign shirtings. The proportion of Japanese yarns, again, during the same period to British and Indian yarns was as two to five. Import. of Japanese manufacture.

I have referred in my trade report for 1892 to the Japanese fishing industry in these waters, and I was astonished to find to what an extent it is growing at Fusan. There are at present more than 2,000 fishing boats registered in the Fusan customs, employing about 8,000 men, the average earnings of each man per year being about 200 dol. (27*l.* 10*s.*), while there are believed to be in addition some 300 boats engaged in the industry which have evaded the licensing fees, making the net earnings of the whole fleet about 1,840,000 dol. (253,000*l.*) a year. Most of the fish taken by these boats are dried at various places along the coast and taken direct to Japan without payment of export duty, and the amount of goods that these vessels are enabled to carry back to the non-treaty ports would make a very substantial addition to the revenue returns could duty be collected upon them. It is next to impossible to obtain reliable information concerning the native shipping plying between Fusan and the non-treaty ports along the coast, but it is estimated that there are 300 boats engaged in the transport of beans, rice, cow-hides, piece-goods, &c., from the treaty port to the Naktong River (under 10 miles from Fusan), by which access is gained to a point some 20 or 30 miles from T'ai-ku, the capital of the province. Ousting foreign manufacture.

I am indebted to Mr. Hunt, the Commissioner of Customs, for the following description of a Korean junk which may be of interest to some readers. There is but one shape of Korean sea-junk. Japanese fishing industry. Smuggling by Japanese boats. Native shipping. Estimated number.

Description of a native junk.

Native
insurance
does not exist.

Brokerage
charge.
Carrying
capacity of
junks
200 tons to
40 tons.
Freight 6*d.*
per bag of
266 lbs.

Native
manufactures,
paucity of.

Paper.

Human hair.

going craft, which differ only in size and the number of masts they carry, being either vessels of one or two masts; a three-masted vessel is seldom seen. The average dimensions of the largest type of Korean vessel are 50 feet long by 18 feet beam and 9 feet draught. They cost about 400 dol. and carry a crew of 30 men. A boat 40 feet by 14 feet with a draught of 7 feet costs about 200 dol (27*l.* to 30*l.*) and requires a crew of about 20 men to work her. The vessels are of the roughest description, being built of roughly hewn planks laid length ways, edge to edge, along which slots are cut at intervals of about 6 inches, and wooden pins driven in to keep the planks in place. Several bulk-heads divide the interior, and transverse beams run through and 1 foot beyond the vessel's sides, being fastened on the outside of the planking with wooden pegs. The sails are usually made of matting, and the boats being flat bottomed, beat very badly to windward, while they are so loosely put together that they are apt to go to pieces in a heavy sea-way. There is no kind of insurance. The charterer takes all risks, and usually accompanies his goods to their destination where he employs a broker to dispose of them. These brokers are called Koek Chu, and are not necessarily local men; their charge is usually 5 per cent. The carrying capacity of the largest junks is 1,600 bags of rice or beans, each bag weighing 2 piculs or 266 lbs., making a capacity of about 200 tons, but the ordinary junk has a capacity of about 40 tons. The freight for a voyage of 30 miles is about 100 cash or 20 c. a bag. The steamer freight for the same distance is less than half that rate. This fact alone will demonstrate the advantage of steamer communication between non-treaty ports.

For the reasons earlier stated there is a deplorable paucity of native manufactures in the district of which Fusan is the port; indeed, the same may be said of the whole of Korea. The few manufactures that do exist are either official monopolies, or are too heavily taxed to admit of profitable extension. Amongst them may be enumerated paper, which enters so largely into the category of articles of Korean domestic use; pipe stems, brass pipe bowls, and rough ware of various kinds; cotton piece-goods, &c. None of these articles, with the exception of paper, are suitable for the foreign market, but the last named article should meet with a ready sale as it is remarkably tough and durable. I have referred to Korean paper at some length in my trade report for 1892, so it is unnecessary to deal with the subject on this occasion.

I might call attention to an article, viz., human hair, that might possibly be in demand in foreign markets were its existence more generally known. The Koreans have remarkably fine heads of hair, and they put their "combings" to a use that I have never seen elsewhere. A very large number of the saddle cloths placed under the packs of their ponies are made of hair woven into coarse mats or bags, and the halters and head-ropes of their animals are largely composed of the same material. I believe that human hair is largely exported from China to Europe, and Korea

could furnish a large and cheap supply did the people know there was a demand for it.

There are several gold mines within a radius of 50 miles from Fusan, but they are very imperfectly worked. Copper has been found close to the port and worked under Japanese auspices, the rough ore being smelted in the settlement, but the results were not found to be sufficiently remunerative, and the experiment was abandoned.

Coal also exists in considerable quantities, but with the Japanese mines so near it is doubtful whether it would pay to extract it.

Wönsan.

The majority of the remarks made above apply to the port of Wönsan, where I spent six days, but I am pleased to be able to report that the prosperity of the port appears better than in 1891 when I last visited it. With a good harvest, of which there is a fair promise, the trade for the present year should show an increase. Unlike Fusan, the import trade is almost entirely in the hands of the Chinese, who have now five firms established there, all of which made money in 1892, though it was considered to be an unprofitable year. Gold forms an important item in the export list at Wönsan, and so large a quantity is carried away by passengers without being declared at the customs that the published returns do not afford at all an accurate indication of the volume of trade. The Chinese, who, unlike their fellow countrymen at Fusan, do all the silk and piece-goods trade, are paid in gold-dust which is said to be superior to that which is obtained in the southern provinces. It might here be mentioned in connection with the subject of silk and cotton piece-goods that Japanese silk cannot compete with Chinese silk in the Korean market, and that the popular piece-goods mark is FFF.

I do not know who are the manufacturers of the cotton piece-goods marked FFF, but I mention the fact to show that when a certain class of goods has obtained a good name in the native market it is apt to hold its own against all competitors, if manufacturers are careful to keep up the quality of their goods. A single bale, however, of a popular mark which is inferior in quality, may be the death warrant of the article in question. At Fusan, curiously enough, the FFF mark is almost unsaleable, KK being the popular mark.

In Wönsan and its vicinity the same system of vexatious and irregular taxation exists as at Fusan, a tax station being established even on the jetty at which goods are landed. The result of this taxation, as far as Wönsan is concerned, has been to divert the trade of the country north of that port to the Russian frontier, and though it is impossible to secure statistics as to the amount of this trade, the bulk of which is not taken cognisance of by the customs authorities at Kiang Hêng, Russian Treaty port, I am assured on

Prospecta
improving.

Mostly in
Chinese
hands.

Gold.

Northern
gold superior.

Japanese silk
cannot
compete with
Chinese silk.

Inland
taxation.

Taxes drive
trade to
Russian
frontier.
Russian
frontier trade.

No statistics
procureable.

Frontier trade increasing. very good authority that it is considerable and that it is increasing. It is encouraged, I am told, by the Russian authorities, though it is by Chinese that the trade is conducted, and there are several large firms at Vladivostock who do a fair business with the Coreans in piece-goods and sundries, that are paid for in gold dust or exchanged for cattle hides and sundries, some of which are brought by junk and others overland.

Import of gold prohibited in Russian territory.

I was surprised to learn that the import of gold dust into Russian territory is prohibited in order to prevent stealing at the Russian mines. These mines are worked by prisoners, and in order to guard against theft it has been found necessary to make the possession of gold by any but authorised persons a penal offence. Gold dust does none the less find its way in large quantities into Vladivostock, and is exported by Chinese merchants.

Northern inter-port trade.

An attempt, and a very unsuccessful one, has been recently made by Japanese merchants to tap this Russian frontier trade by running two small steamers under the Korean flag from Wönsan to the coast ports between that place and the Tumen River. There are two places called Pok-chon and Kilchoo, besides other smaller ports, at which these steamers call periodically, doing the round trip in from 5 to 7 days. They take foreign piece-goods which are consigned by Japanese agents stationed at these places, and bring back hempen cloth, copper, hides, &c., the value of the cargo amounting to between 10,000 dol. and 12,000 dol. (about 1,500%.) a trip.

Here, as at Fusan, is an indication of the importance of opening up points of contact by developing inter-port trade.

Gaskevitch.

It is to be regretted that the Chinese Government have not yet carried out their project of opening out the port of Gaskevitch close to the Tumen River. There seems to be little doubt that the opening of this port would be a commercial gain to Corea, and the political advantages to the Chinese Government are too obvious to require comment. In a few years at the outside, Kirin will be in direct railway communication with Peking. Gaskevitch is the nearest point on the Pacific side to Kirin; there is said to be a good harbour there free of ice in the winter, and if railway communication were established for the short distance between Kirin and Gaskevitch, not only would it be an effectual barrier against Russian advance, but would tap the rich markets of Chinese Manchuria that at present have no outlet but Newchwang, which is much further off and is closed by ice in the winter.

Outlet for Manchurian produce.

I should perhaps explain that I have quoted no statistics of trade in this despatch as these are tabulated in my returns of trade for the current year.

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*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty,
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DENMARK.

COPENHAGEN.

Mr. Scott to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord, *Copenhagen, March 18, 1893.*

I HAVE the honour to transmit to your Lordship, herewith, a Report which has been submitted to me by Sir Francis Denys, Her Majesty's Secretary of Legation, on the measures adopted in this country for the control of the Meat Supply of the population of large towns, and on the strict regulations in particular which are enforced by the municipality of Copenhagen for the marking of meat in the public slaughter-houses.

Sir Francis Denys has been at much pains to collect accurate information respecting the working of a system which he seems justified in considering as highly beneficial on sanitary as well as economic grounds, and capable of adoption with great advantage in other countries, and I have no doubt that his interesting Report will prove very serviceable to the authorities interested in such matters in the United Kingdom.

I have, &c.

(Signed) CHARLES SCOTT.

Sir Francis Denys to Mr. Scott.

Sir, *Copenhagen, March 17, 1893.*

Medical and veterinary authorities have, I believe, been for years in agreement as to the similarity of the diseases which affect cattle and human life, and as to the facility with which evidence tends to show, tuberculosis*, cancer, actynomzeosis, anthrax,

* "Tabes Mesenterica," by G. Sims Woodhead, M.D.—"Our Meat Control." Address to the Doctors' Congress, 1888. Professor Bang—"The Use of Meat and Milk of Tuberculous Animals." Address to the Medical Congress, London, 1891. Professor Bang—"On Inoculation of Tuberculosis and our Meat Control." Dr. Max Melchior. 1890.

strongylus, blood poisoning, and other diseases can be communicated to human beings from eating contaminated meat.

Denmark has been the first country to give practical legislative effect to this opinion by recognising the necessity, from a sanitary as well as an economic point of view, of bringing the meat supply of the population of large towns under Government or municipal control, and thus effecting a prompt and drastic reform of highly dangerous conditions.

Impressed by the conviction that the success of the action initiated by Denmark in this direction is deserving of special attention and imitation by other countries, I beg to submit to you, as likely to be of interest to Her Majesty's Government, a brief description of the system here in force, and of the cattle market and public slaughter-house of Copenhagen, which I feel justified in describing as a model, both in its regulations and arrangements for an institution of a similar nature in any other part of the world.

I have, &c.

(Signed) FRANCIS DENYS.

Report on the Stamping and Control of Meat Supply in Copenhagen.

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The cattle market and slaughter-houses of Copenhagen.

There is one central cattle market and slaughter-house for the whole city of Copenhagen. (Population, 359,815, inclusive of Fredericksburg.) It is situated between the Ny Stormgade and the Kallebod Strand. The yards, stables, storage-houses, slaughter-houses, market, &c., cover an area of about 17 acres.* The cattle

* 13½ tonder, Danish.

market is fitted with every convenience, and the slaughter-houses* are models of sanitation and cleanliness.

Any cattle-owner or butcher, on payment of the fees, can use, subject to the regulations†, the market and the slaughter-house.

Both establishments are under the control of the municipality.

All cattle, sheep, and swine are subjected to a rigid veterinary examination before and after slaughter‡. Veterinary inspection.

After the carcase is prepared the veterinary officer on duty makes his examination, and decides how the meat is to be qualified, and stamps it accordingly§. In all cases the intestines must be placed alongside the carcase, whether of ox, sheep, or swine. Stamping.

Meat is divided into two classes—1st Class and 2nd Class.

The meat|| of a perfectly healthy animal is denominated 1st Class, and is stamped with a blue stamp. (See Diagram A.) The stamp is an ordinary metal stamp with a wooden handle; the colour used is specially prepared for the purpose, dries quickly, adheres well, and is only effaced with great difficulty. Blue stamp.

The carcase is stamped after it has become stiff. No meat can be taken away until stamped. It is the business of the owner to see his meat properly stamped.¶

An ox is marked in twelve different spots (see Diagram E), the stamps being put in such places as have proved most suitable as regards the sale and division of the meat, viz., on both shoulders, both briskets, each side of sirloin, both fore ribs, each buttock and on inside of each buttock below where the buttocks are divided after slaughter. Meat, where stamped.

A calf on slaughter, being only partially skinned, is marked on each shoulder, and on each hind leg on the underside of the thin flank, four places in all. Sheep and lambs on two places, on the thin flank of leg on the underside (see Diagram F).

Swine are marked on nine places, four on each half—leg, hind, loin, belly, hand, and one on head (see Diagrams F and G).

The stamping is done in the slaughter-houses by the veterinary officer on duty. Any employé of the slaughter-house accepting a bribe is punished with instant dismissal; and any infraction of the rules of the cattle market or slaughter-house is punishable by fines from 1 kroner to 50 kroner (1s. 1½d. to 2l. 15s.). Unless the fine or fines** are paid within a stated period the offender is warned off the premises, and cannot use the cattle market and slaughter-house until such fines are paid. Fines and penalties.

In cases where tuberculosis or other disease is discovered after slaughter, if the veterinary officer, after careful inspection, is of opinion that certain portions of the carcase of the affected animal Infected animals and the black stamp.

* No animal can be slaughtered within city limits except at the central slaughter-house.

† Sec. 8. Slaughter-house Regulations, p. 16.

‡ Sec. 5. Slaughter-house Regulations, p. 16.

§ Sec. 7. Regulations for Inspection of Meat, p. 19.

|| Sec. 2. Notice, December 14, 1887, p. 20.

¶ Sec. 5. Regulations for Inspection of Meat at Slaughter-houses, p. 19.

** Sec. 3. Slaughter-house Regulations.

may be utilised, he stamps such meat with the black stamp,* which is somewhat larger than the blue stamp (see Diagram B), and it is denominated 2nd Class. The contaminated portions are at once removed to a separate store-house, afterwards to be destroyed and turned into manure.

Carcases of emaciated, though otherwise healthy, animals are marked with the black stamp.

Carcase
of ox or cow
must be
divided for
veterinary
examination.
Tuberculosis.

It may be mentioned that an inspection of the inside of a carcass after removal of the intestines is not sufficient. The carcass must be divided for the inspection of the spinal cord.

A case of tuberculosis of the spinal cord was shown to me where the disease had eaten away half of one joint of the vertebra. In this case the whole carcass was condemned, though it appeared "prime fat" to the uninitiated observer.

I visited the store-house, where the rejected meat of the day is collected previous to removal to the furnace of destruction, and though the subject is an unpleasant one, I may state that I was shown cases of lungs, pleura liver, and intestines riddled with tuberculosis. This disease appears to be unusually common in Denmark, the cause being possibly attributable to the cattle being stall fed during eight months of the year, owing to the inclemency of the climate.

On the occasion that I visited the market the morning's condemned meat consisted of from two to three cart-loads, the whole of which appeared "prime fat."

Where tuberculosis occurs in the intestines it is a common practice, where no veterinary control is exercised, to remove all visible traces of the disease, scrape the interior of the animal, when the meat is sold as first quality, and probably at first-class prices, a proceeding not only fraudulent but highly injurious to life and to the public health.

System of
insurance in
case of meat
being
condemned.

A system of insurance exists in Copenhagen whereby the owner or butcher can insure against the risk of the animal being found diseased after slaughter, and the meat condemned. Animals so insured are marked on the rump with a circular stamp of green paint as they pass from the cattle market into the slaughtering premises.

Evasions of
law and
tampering
with stamp.

It may be supposed that attempts have not been wanting to cut out the stamp, to forge, to chemically remove it, or to mix 1st and 2nd Class meat after the carcass has been cut up by the retail butcher. Any attempt at fraud of this description is punished by the Courts in accordance with the Law of January 12, 1858.† Fines amounting to 2,000 kroner (110*l.*) can be imposed, and on the third offence the retail butcher forfeits his licence.

Fines.

Some trace of the stamp always remains, and this materially assists the police, who have full powers for periodically visiting and inspecting the meat at the retail shops.

Ready
recognition of
quality of
meat from
stamp.

The purchaser can see at once from the stamp to what class the meat belongs. With regard to meat stamped with the black

* Section 2, Notice, December 14, 1887.

† Infringements of the Sanitary Regulations of January 12, 1858 (see Inclosure I), are punished by fines amounting to 400 kroner (22*l.*).

stamp notices are placarded directing how such meat must be cooked to insure immunity from danger and to destroy all germs.

No special fee is charged for the veterinary inspection and stamp at the central cattle market; it is included in the slaughtering fee (see Sec. 8, Slaughter-house Regulations). The veterinary officers superintending the stamping are from 14 to 15 in number.

After removal to the special store-house the condemned meat is transported daily to the destruction establishment, situated about a mile from the market. Prompt removal of condemned meat.

The covered cart conveying the condemned meat must be locked by the veterinary officer on duty, and opened on arrival with a duplicate key by the foreman of the destruction establishment.

By this precautionary measure, finality in the destruction of the meat is insured, and it cannot be diverted on the way for other purposes; but, with a view to make insurance doubly sure, the meat is soaked in petroleum before it is put into the cart.

On arrival at the destruction establishment the meat is hoisted in a cage by crane to the 1st floor of the building, on which are two large receptacles or boilers into which it is at once placed. These are then fastened down with nuts and screws, and the meat is cooked for $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours, at an atmosphere of four pressures. At the expiration of this period the grease is expelled from the boilers by a steam blast and driven into another receptacle, where it is collected, run off into tins, and sold for the manufacture of soap, the grease of course being then perfectly innocuous. Destruction establishment.

After the expulsion of the grease the residue is then cooked for another 15 minutes, when it is taken out from the boilers in a perfectly dry and inodorous condition, and ready to be mixed with other manures, the large bones being first picked out, collected, and sold separately.

The sanitation and cleanliness of the establishment leaves nothing to be desired, and there is nothing offensive in the process either to the sense of smell or sight.

The Marking of Meat Introduced into Copenhagen for Sale, the Animals having been Slaughtered outside the City Limits.*

Meat introduced into Copenhagen for sale has to pass through a sanitary inspection, either at the central cattle market or at one of the three supplementary control establishments in the city. It is then stamped with the triangular stamp I.K. (see Diagrams C, D) subject to the same regulations as those of the central cattle market. The stamp is somewhat larger than that of the central cattle market. Inspection of meat introduced into city.

In all cases the liver, lungs, larynx, and heart must accompany the carcase.

The following fees are paid for the veterinary inspection and stamping:—

* For Regulations see Inclosure 5, Notice, December 14, 1887.

	Amount.	
	Currency.	Sterling.
	Kr. öre.	s. d.
Ox	2 0	2 3
Horse	1 60	1 8½
Pig*	0 50	0 6½
Calf (not exceeding 160 lbs.)	0 50	0 6½
Sheep	0 15	0 2

The fees are fixed as above stated to avoid any difference in the charges for fees at the supplementary control establishments and those at the central cattle market which would affect the relative price of the meat when retailed.

Imported Pork.

Pork very dangerous.

Owing to the character of the pig's food, pork is the most dangerous of any meat.

By the Law of September 8, 1891, pork and lard are permitted to be imported into Denmark from the United States if the product be provided with an attestation from the sanitary officer at the place of origin that the same is sanitary and fit for human consumption.

Lard is used largely by the poorer classes in Denmark as a substitute for butter.

Exported meat and pork should be veterinarily examined in the exporting country before shipment.

A conscientious compliance with sanitary regulations of the character in question on the part of meat and pork exporting countries would greatly popularise their products, add largely to the demand, and thereby return to both producers and dealers far more than the extra cost incurred.

There is no frozen meat imported into Denmark from any other country.

Imported Foreign Game.

Modifications of Sections 11 and 12 of the Law of April 1, 1871.

Game imported into Denmark.

Under the Danish game laws no game legally classified as such may be exposed for sale till two days after the opening of the shooting season nor after eight days from the date on which the season closes.

How admitted.

Under the above amendments hazel hens ("tetrao tetrrix") may be exposed for sale between August 15 and April 1, provided their foreign origin be shown and proved.

* The difference in fee for a pig and that charged at public slaughter-house is in case of latter there is a scalding-house fee (Sec. 8. Slaughter-house Regulations).

Under a further amendment to the same section the "tetrao urgallus,"* the "tetrao tetrrix," and the "tetrao lagopus,"† may not be exposed for sale between June 1 and August 20. As regards the latter birds, in so far as it is not proved that they come from Iceland.

The manner in which the Swedish birds are usually distinguished is by a large seal of ordinary packing sealing-wax on the feathers, which is affixed by the communal or any other authority where the game is killed.

The burden of proof is left with the game dealer, who has to produce some certificate or evidence showing the foreign origin of the game when required by the police.

The intention of these amendments to the Game Law is to prevent the illegal and unauthorised killing of native game.

The shooting season proper in Denmark commences on September 20.

Remarks.

Every trick and artifice was resorted to with a view to evade the sanitary regulations when first instituted, but by imposing the maximum fines, and owing to the frequent domiciliary visits on the part of the police authorities at the retail butchers' shops, I am informed by Mr. William Schou, the head director of the central cattle market, that the system now works admirably, and, humanly speaking, is almost perfect. Remarks.

The incalculable benefit to the population of all classes from this control cannot be over-estimated, while the dogged perseverance of the municipal authorities in carrying to a successful issue their humane object against the opposition encountered is beyond all praise.

I have to express my thanks to the Danish authorities, and especially to Mr. William Schou, for his courtesy in supplying the information necessary for this report, and for permitting me, under his guidance, to visit the various establishments under his direction.

With a view to show how the system has been introduced and made to work so successfully in Copenhagen, I have the honour to annex to this report translations of the various regulations, named in the table of contents, relating to this important subject.

The regulations are so exhaustive, almost every evasion being provided against, that their perusal will fully explain many of the points which it is impossible to include within the limits of this report.‡

* Black cock.

† Reeper.

‡ For information respecting Milk Control and Supply Association of Copenhagen, see report by A. S. Macgregor, Vice-Consul, published by Scott and Ferguson. Edinburgh. Price 1s.

Inclosure 1.

Law of January 12, 1858, for Imposing Sanitary Regulations.

Sec. 1. Sanitary regulations are to be provided for Copenhagen, for all market towns of the kingdom, and for parishes where the Municipal Council of the district (Amt) consider necessary.

Regulations drawn up by Ministry of Justice, and submitted to local authorities for discussion.

The Ministry of Justice draws up a proposal which is laid before the communal authorities in Copenhagen and the market towns, and before the parish authorities in parishes designated by the Municipal Council of the district, with instructions to adapt its terms to the particular requirements of each locality.

The town or district doctor shall take part in the discussion of the proposal, but without right of vote; also other physicians and experts may be invited by the communal or parish authorities to take part in the proceeding. The Ministry of Justice may be represented by a special emissary, and the district magistrate may personally be present at the discussion.

Alterations made by local authorities must be confirmed by Minister of Justice.

The regulations are then sent in to the Ministry of Justice for confirmation; if the Minister finds any of the regulations sent in unadvisable or irregular he sends them back to the communal or parish authorities whom it may concern to be discussed again.

If the Minister of Justice finds that the regulations after a second discussion are still not such as he can confirm he is to give the communal or parish authorities concerned the choice between the regulations being confirmed with omission of the conditions rejected by him or of the whole regulations being rejected.

Alterations in, or amendments to, the regulations must likewise receive the consent of the communal or parish authorities, and of the Minister of Justice.

Enforcing of regulations.

Sec. 2. The sanitary regulations drawn up by the Minister of Justice are binding for the inhabitants of the towns and parishes whom they may concern, as long as the present law is in force, and they must, therefore, be read before the councils, and brought to the public knowledge in other convenient manner. This holds good for subsequent alterations and amendments.

The chief of the police in Copenhagen, the (superior) magistrates, and police-inspectors are responsible that the sanitary regulations are fully carried out.

Penalty for violation.

Violations of the regulations are punished with fines up to 400 kroner (22*l.*). The offence is treated as criminal, and fines are paid into the police chest. In actions brought against any person for not having conformed to the injunctions or prohibitions imposed on him in respect to the sanitary regulations, the general means of compulsion authorised by law are to be applied on condemnation.

Sec. 3. This law, and the sanitary regulations imposed in consequence of it, are valid till April 1, 1863.

Given at our Castle of Christiansborg, January 12, 1858.

FREDERICK R.

Inclosure 2.

DECREE.—Sanitary Regulations for the City of Copenhagen, confirmed by Ministry of Justice, June 15, 1886.

CHAPTER VI.

Inspector of Provisions, &c.

Sec. 31. All materials and articles which might possibly be of poisonous or dangerous nature shall be subject to the inspection of the sanitary authority. This is also the case as regards articles of food, especially bread, flour, meat, beer, milk, butter, cheese, sugar, coffee, both when in a condition injurious to health, and when adulterated so as to cause a reduction of their nutritive value.

Sec. 32. Meat of horned cattle, horses, calves, sheep, lambs, and swine, which are introduced into the city in a fresh condition, may not be sold before it has been examined in the public slaughter-houses, or in other control station arranged by the sanitary authorities in concert with the magistrate, and has been found fit for human food. After the inspection of the meat, in case it is found fit for human food it is stamped with a stamp that has been accepted by the sanitary authorities.

Meat for sale may not be introduced in parts less than four parts of a carcase in case of horned cattle and horses, while calves, sheep, lambs, and swine may only be divided into two parts.

With the exception of meat of swine, such meat may not be offered together with meat of animals slaughtered in the city, and at the place of sale there shall be hung up a notice printed in large and legible characters, indicating that it is imported meat which is sold at the place.

Sec. 33. Meat and other articles of food may not be offered for sale after having reached a state of putrefaction recognisable by sight or smell.

Sec. 34. The blood and internal parts of the animals mentioned in Sec. 32 may not be introduced into the city without the permission of the sanitary authorities. Sausages and other articles of food prepared from fragments of meat, blood, or internal parts of such animals, with, however, the exception of extract of meat, may not be introduced for sale into the city. Exception may, however, be made by the sanitary authorities when the articles are imported from a place where the necessary control at the slaughter-house has been instituted, and at the preparing of sausages and such articles of food.

Regulations drawn up by Communal Council of Copenhagen in consequence of Law of January 12, 1858, and amendment of ditto of March 28, 1868. Inspection by sanitary authorities. Meat may not be sold until it has been inspected.

And stamped.

In no case may the carcase be introduced cut up into less than four parts. Notice must be put up stating that meat is imported. Sale of putrid meat.

Blood and internal parts. Sausages, &c., may not be brought in without permission of sanitary authorities.

Slaughtering of animals at places other than public slaughter-houses; exceptions.

Sec. 35. The animals mentioned in Sec. 32 may not be slaughtered at other places than at the public slaughter-houses. The following exceptions are, however, made:—

1. Slaughtering of an animal on account of a sudden attack of disease or an accident; the meat, however, may not be used for human food, unless the carcase with all the internal parts have been examined immediately at the public slaughter-house, and the meat has been found fit for human food.

2. The slaughtering of swine at factories, the meat of which is intended for export, in case the sanitary authorities are satisfied that the slaughtering in the factory is done under the necessary control, and that the leavings which are sold in this city are fit for human food.

Meat from sick or dead animals. Penalties for offering for sale.

Sec. 36. In case meat or other articles of food derived from a sick or dead animal intended for sale is found in any butcher's shop or establishment for preservation of meat, and the vendor cannot prove that the regulations mentioned above have been complied with, he shall be liable to penalties in accordance with these regulations.

These regulations also apply to establishments in which articles of food prepared from the meat of such animals are manufactured for sale.

Retail shops.

Supervision of.

Requirements to be satisfied in case of butchers' shops.

Sec. 37. The sale of fresh meat of the animals mentioned in Sec. 32 may, with the exception of swine, only take place from the public shambles or from the shops in private houses which have been licensed by the sanitary authorities, and which are arranged according to their instructions. In order to obtain such license the shops must at least satisfy the following requirements, viz., have a height of 4 ells (about 10 feet) from floor to ceiling, have a waterproof floor, with sufficient outlet for water, that the ceiling is plastered, and the walls covered with glazed tiles plastered with cement; that the room is properly ventilated, and supplied with water for cleansing, and is separated from all other compartments intended for the sale of other articles by solid walls without doors or other openings.

It shall not be lawful to sell other articles than meat and articles of food prepared from meat at the shops for sale of fresh meat.

Sausage-making establishments, &c., must be sanctioned by the sanitary authorities. Sale forbidden under special circumstances.

Establishments where sausages and other such articles of food are prepared, stored, or sold may only be erected with the sanction of the sanitary authorities, and only in accordance with the regulations they may think necessary.

Sec. 38. The sanitary authorities may forbid the sale of articles of food, specially milk, at such places which must be deemed unsuitable for that purpose, and temporarily forbid such sales at places where the prevalence of contagious or dangerous disease may give rise to spreading of the infection.

The import of milk from places where dangerous contagious diseases are prevailing among people and animals may also be temporarily forbidden by the sanitary authorities.

Sec. 39. Articles of food which have been declared unfit for human food shall be destroyed, or in other ways be made innocuous according to the regulations laid down by the sanitary authorities, and at the expense of the owner. Articles of food which have been declared unfit for use.

(Signed) J. NELLEMAN.

The Ministry of Justice, June 15, 1886.

Inclosure 3.

Regulations of the Copenhagen Cattle Market.

Sec. 1. The following days are market days:—Monday and Thursday for cattle to be slaughtered; Wednesday and Saturday for horses and live cattle, including sucking-pigs and swine.

In the case of holidays the market days will be altered according to the decision of the police.

Sec. 2. The market hours begin, in the period from April 1 to September 30 at 6 A.M.; in the months of October and March at 7 A.M.; and from November 1 to the end of February at 8 A.M. The market hours close at 2 P.M.; however, as far as regards horses, they last until 3 P.M. in the period from November 1 to the end of February, and until 5 P.M. during the remainder of the year. The commencement and close of the hours are indicated by the ringing of bells. Horse fairs are held on the third Saturday in March, on the third Saturday in June, on the first Saturday in September, and on the first Saturday in November. These fairs begin at 9 A.M., and are closed at 5 P.M., with the exception of the last, which is closed at 3 P.M.

Sec. 3. On the cattle market may be introduced, if there be sufficient space, oxen, horses, calves, swine, sheep, lambs, goats, and geese. The animals may only by special permission be introduced and exhibited in places other than those intended for each species.

Sec. 4. The person who brings an animal to the market is bound himself to see it brought into the stable, fold, or stall, and, if necessary, securely tied. Places in the stables or stalls are pointed out by the officials.

The cattle market does not take upon itself any guarantee as regards the animals introduced.

If an animal remains standing on the market beyond 4 hours after the market hours are closed, it will be placed in a stable or fold, and stallage must be paid for it.

Sec. 5. No animal infected with any contagious disease may be introduced into the market. Infringement of this prohibition entails punishment according to the law.

All animals introduced into the market are examined by one of the veterinary surgeons attached to the market, who have free access to every part of the market, and may require that the owners of the animals exhibit them in an open place. Every suspected animal is at once placed in the quarantine stable, and

remains there at the expense of the owner as long as the authorities think necessary. Every animal which shows symptoms of a disease of such a nature that it must be deemed that the meat, in part or as a whole, will not be a sound and good article of sale, will be directed to the sanitary slaughter-house of the market to be slaughtered. The expenses connected herewith are to be paid by the owner according to the rate fixed. In case the meat is considered a good and sound article of sale, it is delivered to the owner, otherwise it is destroyed or sold for other uses after having been made unfit for human food, and the amount gained thereby is paid to the owner. The owner cannot oppose the rejection of such animals which, according to the judgment of the authorities, are not fit for sale on the market.

Sec. 6. Only those cattle drivers who have been licensed by the police shall be allowed to drive cattle to and from the market for others. They shall not be allowed to remain there without the permission of the authorities, and only on the place in the market intended for them. They shall be bound to follow the instructions given by the officers and servants of the market, and shall always carry their badge as cattle drivers visible on the breast.

Sec. 7. There must not be found a greater number of animals in the folds than the authorities think can be introduced into them without danger for the animals.

Sec. 8. Every animal stalled in the stables or folds shall be fed in the manner ordered by the magistrates.

Sec. 9. The feeding and tending of the animals are done by persons appointed by the magistrates. The market supplies the necessary fodder. In case the owner of cows in milk, stalled on the market, does not cause these to be milked before 7 A.M. and 7 P.M. during the period from April 1 to October 1, and before 8 A.M. and 8 P.M. during the remaining months of the year, the milking is done by the directions of the market authorities, and the owner has in that case no right to the milk. The dung which falls on the market and in its buildings remains the property of the market. Fodder must not be carried away from the cattle market.

Sec. 10. The market is open night and day for the introduction of animals. Otherwise the market is closed from 10 P.M. to 1 hour before the market hours begin, unless special arrangements are made by the authorities. Only such persons who have business to do on the market have free access to it. Everyone who appears on the cattle market is bound to comply with the market regulations, and shall unhesitatingly follow the orders given by the market officials for the maintenance of good order, and shall be careful in the use of the buildings and appliances. Noise and disturbance are forbidden. Persons who are intoxicated may at once be turned out by the authorities.

The person who infringes these regulations can be ordered off the market for that day, and, as the case may require, be fined with a fine from 1 kr. to 50 kr., which, in case of servants, shall be paid by the master, under the condition that he is informed thereof

by the authorities by letter immediately after the fine has been imposed. In case the fine is not paid within the period fixed, the person who has committed the infraction may be refused admittance to the cattle market until payment takes place.

Sec. 11. The officials of the market have at any time free admission to all the hired compartments.

Sec. 12. It is forbidden to give the servants of the market drink-money or gifts.

Sec. 13. No animal may be taken away from the market before the expenses connected with the animal's stay there have been paid. Receipt to the effect that the money has been paid is delivered at the entrance; the pay for these animals, which are to be taken away after the market hours, must be paid before the office of the market is closed. Fodder purchased from the market is delivered on the production of the bill of delivery handed to the buyer at the time of payment.

The magistrates have a right to retain those animals for which the necessary fees have not been paid as a security for their claim until payment takes place. If the payment is not effected within 3 days, the animal will be sold in order to cover the expenses connected with its exhibition on the market, its stalling, &c.

Table of Fees for the use of the Copenhagen Cattle Market.

Sec. 1. For the introduction of an animal for sale on the cattle market the following stallage shall be paid whether the animal is sold or not:—

STALLAGE.

Description.	Amount.
	Öre.
For an ox (bull, bullock, cow, or heifer) ..	50
„ a horse	20
„ a calf under 300 lbs. or swine.. ..	20
„ sheep, lambs, or goat	10
„ a goose	5
„ a sucking-pig offered from the cart ..	10

The stallage is only charged once for the same animal, even if it is several times exhibited in the stalls, if it has not been taken away from the market in the meantime.

Sec. 2. For each day the animal remains on the market the following fees are paid for the feeding, stabling, and tending:—

STABLE AND FODDER FEE.

Description.	Amount.
	Öre.
For an ox (bull, bullock, cow, or heifer) daily	80
For a calf under 300 lbs. or swine, daily ..	30
For a sheep, lamb, or goat, daily	15

In calculating the stable money, as one day is counted the period from 6 P.M. of one day to 6 P.M. of the next day, and so on from 6 to 6, so that every animal which leaves after this hour shall pay stable money for the next day. In case a whole day has not expired, stable money shall, however, be paid for a whole day, but if the animal has not been fully 24 hours on the market, stable money shall only be paid for one day.

Regulations for the Conveyance by Rail to and from the Copenhagen Cattle Market.

Sec. 1. The freight and other expenses connected with the transport of the animals by rail to the cattle market are paid at the office of the cattle market.

Sec. 2. The railway company shall as soon as convenient, and the regulations allow, cause the necessary waggons to be placed at the platform of the cattle market on notice being previously given at the goods department of the Copenhagen Railway for the transport of live cattle from the cattle market to other places on the harbour line, and also to the Copenhagen Railway Station and other stations in Zealand or abroad which are in direct communication with the Copenhagen station. At the time of this notice being given the freight and other fees to the railway shall be paid in accordance with the regulations of the table of fees of the railway company, as the cattle market does not undertake to recover freight, &c., for animals sent away from the market.

Sec. 3. According to Sec. 5 of the regulations of the railway company the sender or receiver shall himself undertake the loading and unloading of the animals and the securing of the same in the waggons. If the sender or receiver does not undertake the loading and unloading of the animals and does not see that the animals arriving at the platform are received, these services will be performed by the licenced stall-men against payment of the regulated fee.

Sec. 4. If, in accordance with the regulations of the cattle market, the receiver does not cause, within an hour, the animals which have arrived to be stabled or placed in folds or stalls, the market authorities see that this is done on his behalf against payment of the fee, therefore, see Sec. 8 III., of the regulations of the Working Men's Association of the Copenhagen Railway Station.

Sec. 5. The following fees are paid for animals arriving at the market for the use of the platform of the cattle market with the places for securing the animals or of the folds:—

Description.						Amount.
						Öre.
For a horse	..	..	..	..	..	5
„ an ox	..	..	..	..	..	5
„ a pig	..	..	..	..	..	5
„ a calf	..	..	..	..	..	2
„ a sheep or lamb..	..	..	..	..	..	1

While the animal which leaves the market by rail does not pay any fee for the said use of the platform.

Sec. 6. Only animals which are intended to be introduced into the stables, folds, or on the stalls of the cattle market, shall be allowed to be unloaded on the platforms of the cattle market, and the market regulations and its appendix thus apply to all animals introduced into the market by rail.

No stallage shall, however, be paid for animals addressed to the butchers who make use of the public slaughter-houses if notice is given that they are intended for the slaughter-houses before or as soon as they arrive.

The freight shall in this case be paid at the offices of the market, before permission is given to remove the animals in slaughtered condition.

The authorities of the market do not undertake to give the consignee any notice of the arrival of such animals.

Should any alteration be made in these regulations notice will be given a week before the alteration comes into force.

The Magistrates of Copenhagen, February 16, 1885.

(Signed) L. BORUP.

(Signed) H. STOCKFLETH.

Inclosure 4.

Regulations for the Public Slaughter-houses of Copenhagen.

Sec. 1. The slaughter-houses are open, the scalding-houses can be used, and the veterinary control takes place at the hours fixed by the authorities, and are published by placards. Deviations herefrom can only be allowed by the inspector.

Sec. 2. The persons who wish to use the public slaughter-houses shall, once for all, give a written notice to the directors at least 3 days before the first slaughtering takes place. When the notice is given the officials will, as soon as possible, inform the party whether slaughtering can be commenced. If the person who has given a notice does not constantly make use of the public slaughter-houses, the notice will be considered as not given if during 14 days no butchering has taken place on his account. Butchers

residing in other municipalities may be admitted if the space and other circumstances allow.

Butchers and hirers of compartments in the public slaughter-houses shall deliver to the officials a list, signed by them, of the persons they intend to employ there. The officials may refuse to give admission to the slaughter-houses to persons who have not been reported in this manner.

Sec. 3. Only persons who have business in the slaughter-houses have free access to them. Other persons can only be admitted with the permission of the officials. Children under 14 years shall on no condition be admitted. Dogs must not be admitted. Driving in the precincts of the slaughter-houses must only take place at a foot's pace. No smoking is allowed in the slaughter-halls, cellars, or scalding-house. Persons who are intoxicated may be shown out at once. Noise and disturbance are forbidden.

Everyone who uses the public slaughter-houses is bound to follow the regulations, unhesitatingly to obey the directions given by the officials for the maintenance of good order, and shall be careful in the use of the buildings and appliances. The persons who infringe these regulations can be fined from 1 kr. to 50 kr. by the inspector, which, as regards servants, shall be paid by the master, under the condition that he is informed thereof by letter by the authorities immediately after the fine has been imposed. In case the fine is not paid within the period fixed, the person who has committed the infraction may be refused admittance to the slaughter-houses until payment takes place. The person may also, if it is deemed necessary, be ordered off the ground of the slaughter-houses, and the inspector may also refuse to admit him to the slaughter-houses for a certain time.

Sec. 4. The officials may require that every animal, or herd of animals, introduced into the slaughter-houses are followed by a list, indicating the species of the animal, number, and mark, and the full name and address of the owner or butcher. This list is handed to the stallman of the stable, or fold, to which the animals are conducted. As a rule, every animal introduced into the slaughter-houses shall be slaughtered there. Should the officials find that there is special reason for sending it out alive, the butchering fee shall, however, always be paid.

Sec. 5. Every animal introduced into the slaughter-houses shall, both alive and after it is slaughtered, undergo a veterinary inspection according to rules which will be laid down. Animals sent to the sanitary slaughter-house may only be slaughtered by the butcher authorised for this purpose. The fee mentioned in Sec. 8 shall be paid at the office of the administration.

Sec. 6. The animals shall be killed in the manner customary at this place. Bulls shall, before they are untied in the stables, be dressed with a frontiruptor and be killed by the means thereof. Swine shall be stunned by a blow on the forehead before they are killed. Only strong and expert men may be employed for the purpose of killing oxen. The butchering of the animals shall be commenced immediately after they have been killed, and be finished

without delay and as quick as possible. The butchering shall be commenced so early that it can be finished before hours of closing, which are indicated by the ringing of bells. After this hour no work must be done in the buildings of the slaughter-houses except with the special permission of the officials.

Sec. 7. The greatest cleanliness possible shall be observed in the butchering. All sorts of offal shall be removed as quickly as possible, and must on no condition remain all night in any of the buildings. The different appliances and implements shall be put back in their places after use, after having been properly cleaned.

The officials of the slaughter-houses have at any time free access to all the compartments of the slaughter-houses.

Sec. 8. The fees for the use of the public slaughter-houses are :—

Description.						Amount.	
						Kroner	öre.
For an ox	..	..	..	..	..	2	00
„ a horse	..	..	..	..	..	1	50
„ a pig	..	..	..	..	..	0	50
„ a calf (under 300 lbs.)	..	..	..	..	..	0	50
„ a sheep or lamb.	..	..	..	..	..	0	15

Including the fee for the use of the scalding-house.

The foregoing fees, together with any other sums the person might owe to the slaughter-houses, including fines according to Sec. 3, shall be paid at the office of the slaughter-houses every Monday, or latest on Thursday, according to the settlement for the foregoing week. Should any dispute arise as to the settlement, the bills shall be paid to their full amount, while any protest, if so desired by the party interested, shall undergo a careful examination. The system of weekly payments shall be abolished for everyone who does not punctually every Monday, or latest Thursday, pay the amounts due for the foregoing week, and payment will in this case have to be made before the animals are removed from the slaughter-houses. It is especially pointed out that the amounts due shall be paid at the office, and that the party cannot claim that they shall be collected at his residence. If payment is not made in due time the officials shall be entitled to refuse to deliver up the animals slaughtered belonging to the party which at the time are found in the slaughter-houses, and further, after the expiration of 24 hours, to sell the animals by private contract in order to reimburse themselves for the amount due to the slaughter-houses. In case of a law-suit, the person in question shall, without regard to his own venue, be bound to appear before the Court of Conciliation and the Inferior Court of Copenhagen, the same notice being given to him as is given to persons living within the town, the summons being read at the public slaughter-houses, and he is also subject to the summary legal procedure according to the Law of January 25, 1828.

Sec. 9. In case the owner of cows in milk does not cause these to be milked within the hour fixed by the officials, the milking is done by the servants of the slaughter-houses, and the owner has in that case no right to the milk. The dung falling on the area of the slaughter-houses remains the property of the slaughter-houses.

Sec. 10. Places in the slaughter-houses and in the stables are assigned by the officials. Carcases, or parts thereof, must not remain in the compartments or in the scalding-houses longer than until the following day at noon. When the carcases are fetched, the heads or other parts of the animals must not be left behind. Whatever may be left behind will be removed, and the party cannot sue for compensation on that account.

Sec. 11. The officials shall see that the slaughter-halls, cellars, scalding-house, and other compartments, are kept clean.

Sec. 12. The officials of the slaughter-houses do not undertake any guarantee whatsoever as regards the animals, carcases, or other parts thereof in the public slaughter-houses, nor as regards the utensils belonging to the butchers; however, they provide that inspectors are present day and night.

Sec. 13. It is forbidden to give the servants of the slaughter-houses drink-money.

The Magistrates of Copenhagen, September, 1887.

(Signed) L. BORUP.

(Signed) H. STOCKFLETH.

Regulations for the Feeding of the Animals in the Public Slaughter-houses of Copenhagen.

Sec. 1. Animals intended to be slaughtered may be stabled in the stalls of the public slaughter-houses as far as the space allows. The feeding and tending of the animals is done by the servants appointed by the magistrates, and according to the rules given by the officials. No special fee for stabling, tending, and litter is paid for the first 10 days, but the fodder supplied must be paid at the regulated rate of the cattle market. It is delivered either in pursuance of a request from the owner (butcher), or in case he does not ask for the fodder necessary for feeding the animals properly, it is delivered by the directions of the officials of the slaughter-houses.

Sec. 2. No animal must remain standing in the stables without being fed for a longer time than 24 hours immediately preceding the butchering.

Sec. 3. If the owner lets an animal remain in the stables or folds of the slaughter-houses more than 10 days from their introduction, stallage shall be paid according to the fee regulations of the cattle market.

Sec. 4. The amount due for the fodder shall be paid, together

with the other expenses due to the slaughter-houses, on account of the animal in question, and for which the owner is liable.

The Magistrates of Copenhagen, September, 1887.

(Signed) L. BORUP.

(Signed) H. STOCKFLETH.

Regulations for the Inspection of Meat at the Public Slaughter-houses of Copenhagen.

Sec. 1. Every animal introduced into the public slaughter-houses of the city to be slaughtered shall, before the butchering takes place, undergo an inspection by the veterinaries attached to the establishment.

Sec. 2. This inspection is carried out at the hours fixed by the officials, and which are made known by placards.

Sec. 3. In case the animal is suffering from a temporary disease, the owner can claim that it shall be put under observation for a suitable time.

Sec. 4. In case the officials of the public slaughter-houses refuse to slaughter an animal on account of disease, considerable emaciation, or external injury, it is sent to the sanitary slaughter-houses, wherefrom the meat is handed to the owner in case it is fit for human food; if not, it is rejected and destroyed.

Sec. 5. No carcase or part thereof may be removed from the slaughter-houses before the meat has been inspected and stamped with the stamp of the slaughter-houses. It is the business of the owner to ascertain that the meat has been stamped with the proper stamp before it is taken away from the slaughter-houses. If the meat at the inspection does not prove to be fit for human food, the same mode of procedure is followed as laid down in the concluding paragraph of Sec. 4.

Sec. 6. The stamping of the meat takes place every day after all the butchering is done. The officials can, however, in exceptional cases deviate from this rule when special circumstances make it desirable.

The officials are entitled to postpone the stamping of the meat until it has become cool and stiff, if necessary for the judgment of the meat.

Sec. 7. No internal organ, such as lungs, heart, liver, spleen, kidneys, &c., may be removed or be mixed together before they have been examined, and the butchers or their attendants are bound to arrange these parts in such a way as to allow of easy inspection.

Sec. 8. When the head veterinary of the public slaughter-houses has made his report in cases of doubt, every owner is entitled to appeal from the decision of the veterinary to the sanitary authority of the city. This appeal must, however, be made before 24 hours have elapsed; after the expiration of that

time the meat is removed from the slaughter-houses, and is treated according to the regulations laid down in Sec. 4.

If the sentence of the sanitary authority goes against the owner of the meat, he must pay the expenses connected with the appeal.

The magistrates reserve their right at any time to make alterations in these regulations, which come into force on October 1, 1887.

The Magistrates of Copenhagen, September, 1887.

(Signed) L. BORUP.

(Signed) H. STOCKFLETH.

Inclosure 5.

NOTICE of December 14, 1887.

Compulsory
inspection of
meat in
Copenhagen
slaughtered
outside, and
introduced
into city for
sale.
Places of
inspection.

According to the sanitary regulations of the city of Copenhagen it shall not be lawful after January 1, 1888, to sell meat of horned cattle, horses, calves, sheep, lambs, and swine introduced into this city in fresh condition before it has been inspected and found fit for human food. For the purpose the following regulations are laid down:—

Sec. 1. The inspection of the meat will take place both at the head station situated in the public slaughter-house, specially intended for meat arriving by rail and by carts from the west, and at the following sub-stations:—

Følledevej, No. 18, specially intended for meat arriving from the north.

Havnegade, No. 13, specially intended for meat arriving by ship or from Amager.

In the house situated in Istedgade, No. 7, will be arranged an auxiliary station at times when the imports of meat to the head station are very great.

Hours of
inspection.

Sec. 2. The stations will as a rule be open during the following hours:—

(a) The head station every day during the summer half-year from April 1 to October 1 from 5 A.M.; during the winter half-year from 6 A.M. till noon, and from 2 P.M. to 9 P.M.

(b) The sub-station at Følledevej every week-day during the summer half-year from 5 A.M.; during the winter half-year from 6 A.M. to 10 A.M., and Monday and Thursday also from 6 P.M. to 9 P.M.

(c) The sub-station at Havnegade every week-day during the summer half-year from 5 A.M. to noon, and from 2 P.M. to 6 P.M.; during the winter half-year from 6 A.M. to noon and from 2 P.M. to 4 P.M.

Fees payable
by owners.

Sec. 3. The following fees shall be paid for the inspection of the meat:—

Description.	Amount.	
	Kroner	öre.
For an ox	2	00
„ a horse	1	60
„ a pig	1	50
„ a calf (under 160 lbs.)	0	50
„ a sheep or lamb	0	15

As to sheep and lambs the above-mentioned fee shall be paid in full for every part of such animals presented for inspection. As to the other animals the fees are only paid in full when the carcasses are presented whole, while a reduction is made for parts of carcasses. It is pointed out that, according to Sec. 32 of the sanitary regulations, meat may not be introduced in parts less than four parts of a carcass in cases of horned cattle and horses, while calves, sheep, lambs, and swine may only be divided into two parts.

The internal parts of animals may go with the carcass in their natural position or affixed thereto, and no special fee shall be paid for the inspection. But these parts may not otherwise be introduced for sale without the permission of the sanitary authorities, and the owners cannot, therefore, claim that they should be stamped when such permission has not been obtained.

The right of fixing the payment for these cases is reserved.

Sec. 4. The fee for inspection shall be paid in advance and the money cannot be claimed back if the stamping is refused. Payment is effected in the following manner:—

Payment of
fees: how
effected.

Tickets shall be issued of different size and colour for each species of animal to the amount of the lowest payment possible for these animals, viz., for oxen 50 öre, for horses 40 öre, for swine 28 öre, for calves 25 öre, and for sheep and lambs 15 öre.

The tickets may be had at all the stations at the hours during which they are open, and are only valid at the station and for the day they have been taken; no person can claim to get change at the stations.

Before the inspection of the meat takes place the person who brings it in shall buy the necessary number of tickets which are then delivered to the veterinary. The veterinaries shall clip the tickets when delivered, which are thus cancelled.

Sec. 5. As to the inspection and stamping the following rules are hereby laid down.

The inspection is always made by a veterinary. In case the meat is found to be perfectly fit for human food it shall be stamped with a stamp of the following form:—

Stamping of
meat which
has been
inspected.



The stamp, which is of a blue colour, shall be put in different places. As to horned cattle the tongue, lungs, liver, and heart belonging to the carcase must be hanging or affixed to it (see above, sec. 3), and shall always be stamped separately.

Doubtful cases.

Second inspection at head station.

If the veterinary doubts whether the meat may be said to be perfectly fit for human food, but thinks it may be eaten without danger to health when it has been thoroughly boiled or roasted, he gives it the above stamp in black unless the person who has introduced the meat wishes the question to be decided by the head veterinary surgeon. In this case and when the veterinary is in doubt whether the meat ought to be stamped, the inspection must not be finished at the sub-stations, but the person who has introduced the meat shall see it brought to the head station when the final inspection takes place. In this case the meat shall be furnished with a leaden stamp, whereafter it is handed to the person who has brought it in together with a certificate. No fee is paid for the final inspection at the head station.

Meat unfit for human food shall be destroyed.

If from the final inspection it results that the meat is unfit for human food, it shall be kept back and by direction of the authorities made unfit for human food.

If the person who has introduced the meat remains at the station to await the result of the examination, he can claim to have a certificate signed by the head veterinary or his substitute to the effect that the stamping has been refused, and giving the cause of such refusal.

An appeal may be made from such decision to the town sanitary authority, but a certificate attested by the police that such appeal has been made must be delivered at the head office of the cattle market and slaughter-houses before 1 P.M. on the day following, as otherwise the destruction of the meat will take place without regard to the appeal which in this case will be considered as not entered.

If the decision of the sanitary authority goes against the appellant he must pay the costs of such appeal.

Inspection of swine.

As regards swine the inspection does not extend to ascertaining the existence of trichinæ;* it will afterwards be decided whether such inspection can be claimed, and if so under what conditions.

No compensation due to owner if meat is rejected.

Sec. 6. The authorities do not hold themselves liable for meat introduced into the stations. They are entitled to dispose of the meat which is rejected without the owner having the right to sue for compensation.

* Raw ham not being eaten in Denmark, there is no need to examine for trichinæ.

If it is found at the inspection that the animal was infected with a contagious disease the owner of the meat is bound to repay the expenses incurred in order to prevent the spreading of the disease.

Sec. 7. This notice shall be affixed in all the control stations in places easily accessible to the public.

The Magistracy of Copenhagen, December 14, 1887.

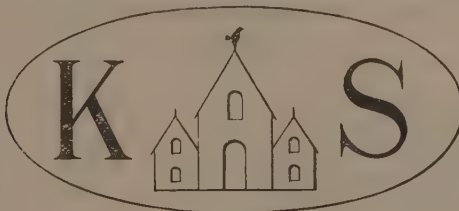
(Signed) L. BORUP.

Inclosure 6.

NOTICE of December 14, 1887.

In accordance with the sanitary regulations of June 15, 1886, for the town of Copenhagen no cattle, horses, calves, sheep, lambs, or swine may be slaughtered after January 1, 1888, in the city in any other place than the public slaughter-house, except under circumstances 1 and 2 described in Sec. 35 of the regulations. From the above-named date the following rules must be observed for the stamping of the meat which leaves the public slaughter-house for sale.

All meat which leaves the public slaughter-house for sale must be marked with a coloured stamp of the following form:—



Blue mark for first class meat.

The stamp will be affixed to different parts of the animal. In the case of cattle the tongue, lungs, heart, and liver will always be marked.

Sec. 2. The stamp will have a blue colour when the meat is ascertained to be unconditionally fit for human food. If there is doubt in this respect, but it is ascertained that the meat after being thoroughly boiled or roast can be eaten without danger the stamp will be black.

Sec. 3. With regard to swine the examination does not extend to declaring the meat free from trichinæ.* It will be subsequently decided whether and, in the affirmative case, under what conditions an examination for trichinæ can be demanded.

* Raw ham is not eaten in Denmark, so examination for trichinæ would not be necessary.

In other respects the terms of the regulations laid down for the examination of meat in the public slaughter-houses must be complied with.

The Magistracy of Copenhagen, December 14, 1887.

(Signed) L. BORUP.

Inclosure 7. — Budget of the Cattle Market and the Slaughter-houses of Copenhagen.

A.—REVENUE.

Item.	Description.	Amount.
		Kroner.
1	Stallage.. ..	38,820
2	Stable and fodder fees	88,600
3	Butchering fees	99,900
4	Receipts from rents	36,400
5	Dung and offal	1,600
6	Duty on meat introduced into the city	90,000
7	Receipts from the cooling-house	11,680
8	Other receipts	100
	Total	367,100

B.—EXPENDITURE.

Item.	Description.	Amount.
		Kroner øre.
1	Salaries.. ..	41,216 68
2	Servants	49,686 0
3	Office expenses.. ..	4,030 0
4	Fodder	49,480 0
5	Lights, fuel, and cleaning	22,800 0
6	Taxes and insurance	6,930 50
7	Maintenance of buildings	12,610 0
8	Inventory	7,990 95
9	Rent of compartments for meat-control outside of the slaughter-houses	2,600 0
10	Removal of the offal from the slaughter-houses ..	3,850 0
11	Working and maintenance of the cooling-house and its boilers	14,332 50
12	The working of the clarifying basin.. ..	2,320 0
13	Expenses connected with the conveyance of the meat to the central establishments	10,000 0
14	The working of the establishment for the destruction of condemned meat	292 97
15	Unforeseen expenses	2,500 0
16	Payment of interest of the establishment funds ..	124,206 8
17	Credited to the fund for renewal and extension ..	12,254 32
	Total	367,100 0

THE Cattle Market and the Slaughter-Houses.

A.—REVENUE.

Description.						Amount.
						Kroner.
1. STALLAGE.						
60,000 oxen at 50 öre ..	..	..	..	..	..	30,000
100 sheep at 10 öre ..	..	..	..	..	..	10
38,000 calves at 20 öre ..	..	..	..	..	..	7,600
2,500 swine at 20 öre ..	..	..	..	..	..	500
100 sucking pigs at 10 öre ..	..	..	..	..	..	10
1,500 horses at 20 öre ..	..	..	..	..	..	300
8,000 geese at 5 öre ..	..	..	..	..	..	400
Total ..	..	..	..	..	..	38,820
(Entered in the estimates for 1891 as 38,310 kroner. The receipts for 1890 were 40,187 kroner 60 öre.)						
2. STABLE AND FODDER FEES.						
70,000 oxen at 80 öre ..	..	..	..	..	..	56,000
30,000 calves at 30 öre ..	..	..	..	..	..	9,000
2,000 swine at 30 öre ..	..	..	..	..	..	600
Fodder sold ..	..	..	..	..	..	23,000
Total ..	..	..	..	..	..	88,600
(Entered in the estimates for 1891 as 85,000 kroner. The receipts for 1890 were 88,147 kroner 48 öre.)						
3. BUTCHERING FEES.						
30,000 oxen at 2 kroner ..	..	..	..	..	..	60,000
48,000 calves at 50 öre ..	..	..	..	..	..	24,000
80,000 sheep at 15 öre ..	..	..	..	..	..	12,000
2,000 swine at 1 kroner 50 öre	..	..	..	..	..	3,000
600 horses at 1 kroner 50 öre	..	..	..	..	..	900
Total ..	..	..	..	..	..	99,900
(Entered in the estimates for 1891 as 107,250 kroner. The receipts in 1890 were 99,636 kroner.)						

REVENUE—continued.

Description.	Amount.
	Kroner.
4. RECEIPTS FROM RENTS.	
Inns and refreshment rooms	8,000
12 offices at 300 kroner	3,600
72 reception-lairs for lambs at 80 kroner; 24 reception-lairs for lambs at 60 kroner.	7,200
Distribution fold	300
The compartment of the slaughter-houses for reception of hides, skins, and tallow	15,200
The compartment for cleaning of the intestines	2,200
The weights (10 per cent. of the whole amount received for the use)	100
Total	36,400
(Entered as in the estimates for 1891. The receipts in 1890 were 34,686 kroner 99 öre. It must be pointed out that the 5 years' lease of the compartment for the reception of hides, skins, and tallow expires on October 1, 1892, and it will therefore depend upon the terms of the new lease whether the rent for the last half year will correspond with the sum estimated.)	
5. DUNG AND OFFAL	1,600
(Entered as in the estimate for 1891. The receipts in 1890 were 1,433 kroner 33 öre.)	
6. DUTY ON MEAT INTRODUCED INTO THE CITY	90,000
(Entered as in the estimates for 1891. The receipts in 1890 were 86,374 kroner.)	
7. RECEIPTS FROM THE COOLING-HOUSE.	
20 cellars at 350 kroner	7,000
26 cellars at 180 kroner	4,680
Total	11,680
(Entered as in the estimates for 1891. The receipts in 1890 were 9,200 kroner.)	
8. OTHER RECEIPTS	100
(Entered as in the estimates for 1891. The receipts in 1890 were 20 kroner.)	

B.—EXPENDITURE.

Description.	Amount.	
	Kroner	öre.
1. SALARIES.		
Inspector	4,400	0
Vice-inspector	2,800	0
Head veterinary surgeon	2,800	0
Head clerk	2,200	0
1 assistant	1,400	0
1 assistant (9 months at 1,000 kroner a year, and 3 months at 1,200 kroner a year)	1,050	0
1 clerk	800	0
1 clerk (4 months at 700 kroner a year, and 8 months at 800 kroner)	766	66
1 veterinary surgeon, 1st class	2,200	0
1 veterinary surgeon, 1st class (4 months at 2,000 kroner a year, and 8 months at 2,200 kroner a year)	2,133	34
1 veterinary surgeon, 2nd class, 1,600 kroner, and extra 50 kroner (see Estimates for 1890).. .. .	1,650	0
2 veterinary surgeons, 2nd class, at 1,600 kroner	3,200	0
2 veterinary surgeons, 2nd class (4 months at 1,400 kroner, and 8 months at 1,600 kroner)	3,066	68
Assistants to the head veterinary surgeon in accordance with the decision of the magistrates of April 15, 1889	6,500	0
The foreman of the cattle market	1,600	0
The foreman of the slaughter-houses (9 months at 1,800 kroner, and 3 months at 2,000 kroner)	1,850	0
The lodge-keeper of the cattle market	1,000	0
The lodge-keeper of the slaughter-houses	800	0
Extra assistance in the offices and assistance on account of illness	1,000	0
Total	41,216	68
(Entered in the estimates for 1891 as 39,000 kroner 4 öre. The increase is due to rise in salaries made in accordance with the regulations. The expenditure in 1890 was 36,707 kroner 83 öre.)		
2. SERVANTS.		
28 servants at the slaughter-houses at 17 kroner weekly	25,228	0
9 servants at the cattle market at 15 kroner weekly	7,155	0
2 night watchmen at 15 kroner weekly	1,590	0
1 butcher at 21 kroner weekly	1,113	0
1 quartermaster	1,000	0
4 assistants at the meat control at 900 kroner	3,600	0
Daily wages and extra assistance	10,000	0
Total	49,686	0
(Entered in the estimates for 1891 as 48,712 kroner, the expenditure in 1890 was 47,052 kroner 23 öre. As the weekly wages to servants, night watchmen, and butchers are paid every Saturday, weekly wages will appear paid for 53 weeks in the account for 1892. It has proved necessary to increase the wages of the butcher by 6 kroner weekly.)		

EXPENDITURE—continued.

Description.		Amount.	
		Kroner	öre.
3. OFFICE EXPENSES.			
1 messenger		780	0
Registers, paper, and office requisites		1,000	0
Control ticket and prints		1,700	0
Postage, telegrams, books, papers, advertisements..		350	0
Cab hire		200	0
Total		4,030	0
(Entered as in the estimates for 1891. The expenditure 1890 was 4,018 kroner 60 öre.)			
4. FODDER.			
14,000 cwt. hay, at 3 kroner		42,000	0
3,200 cwt. straw at 1 kroner 50 öre		4,800	0
200 cwt. barley flour at 8 kroner		1,600	0
50 cwt. wheat brand at 6 kroner		300	0
100 cwt. oats at 7 kroner		700	0
Cab hire for the purchase of hay		80	0
Total		49,480	0
(Entered in the estimates for 1891 as 48,560 kroner. The expenditure in 1890 was 54,250 kroner 36 öre, owing to the very high prices for fodder.)			
5. LIGHT, FUEL, AND CLEANING.			
a. Light.. .. .		12,800	0
b. Fuel		5,700	0
c. Cleaning		4,300	0
Total		22,800	0
(Entered as in the estimates for 1891. The expenditure was 21,422 kroner 40 öre in 1890.)			
6. TAXES AND INSURANCE.			
a. Insurance—			
The cattle market and slaughter-houses are insured for 1,825,670 kroner, of this amount is paid eight-tenths per mille, with an addition of two-tenths per mille for the buildings belonging to the inns		1,470	44
One-half per mille on the stores of the cattle market and slaughter-houses, and on the supply of fodder and fuel		120	0
Insurance of the animals stalled in the temporary stable of the cattle market, value 100,000 kroner		60	0
Total		1,650	44

EXPENDITURE—continued.

Description.	Amount.
	Kroner öre.
TAXES AND INSURANCE—continued.	
<i>b.</i> Taxes and Fees—	
	Kroner öre.
Ground tax 289 40	
Taxes on buildings .. . 176 86	
Land tax 3,361 80	
Water rate 1,032 0	
Water rate for water for the cleansing of the sewers at 1 kroner 40 öre per 100 barrels 420 0	
	5,280 06
Total	6,930 50
(Entered in the estimates for 1891 as 6,882 kroner 20 öre. The expenditure in 1890 was 6,954 kroner 91 öre.)	
7. MAINTENANCE OF BUILDINGS.	
<i>a.</i> According to the annexed estimate from the city architect 9,000 0	
<i>b.</i> According to the annexed estimate from the city engineer 2,180 0	
<i>c.</i> Maintenance of the plantations, &c., according to the annexed estimate from the gardener 300 0	
<i>d.</i> Subscription to the telephone 380 0	
<i>e.</i> Extraordinary works 750 0	
Total	12,610 0
(Entered in the estimates for 1891 as 12,370 kroner. The expenditure in 1890 was 11,667 kroner 14 öre.)	
8. INVENTORY.	
Articles of clothing for the officials according to the annexed estimate 3,240 95	
Veterinary requisites, chemical and colour for stamps .. 1,000 0	
Various stores as per inventory: the procuring and maintenance of the stores of the cattle market and the slaughter-houses 3,750 0	
Total	7,990 95
(Entered in the estimates for 1891 as 8,582 kroner 35 öre. The expenditure in 1890 was 7,885 kroner 64 öre.)	
9. RENT OF COMPARTMENTS FOR MEAT-CONTROL OUT- SIDE OF THE SLAUGHTER-HOUSES	
	2,600 0
(Entered as in the estimates for 1891. The expenditure in 1890 was 2,408 kroner.)	

EXPENDITURE—continued.

Description.	Amount.	
	Kroner	öre.
10. REMOVAL OF THE OFFAL FROM THE SLAUGHTER-HOUSES.		
To the receiver of the offal	1,500	0
Expenses connected with the conveyance of the offal and the loading thereof on the railway wagons	2,500	0
	4,000	0
Deduct—		
Reimbursement by using own wagons	150	0
Total	3,850	0
(Entered in the estimates for 1891 as 4,000 kroner. The expenditure in 1890 was 5,640 kroner 83 öre.)		
11. WORKING AND MAINTENANCE OF THE COOLING-HOUSE AND BOILERS.		
1 engineer	1,200	0
1 engineer in reserve at 5 kroner per day for 200 days ..	1,000	0
1 fireman	1,040	0
1 fireman in reserve at 3 kroner per day for 200 days ..	600	0
2 attendants at 17 kroner weekly for 29 weeks	986	0
Uniform for a fireman	46	50
Expenses connected with the technical working of the cooling-house according to the annexed estimate from the city engineer	9,460	0
Total	14,332	50
(Entered in the estimates for 1891 as 14,472 kroner 50 öre. The expenditure in 1890 was 15,668 kroner 59 öre.)		
12. THE WORKING OF THE CLARIFYING BASIN.		
Wages	1,250	0
Chemicals	900	0
Water rate	70	0
Implements and other small requisites	100	0
Total	2,320	0
(Entered in the estimates for 1891 as 3,000 kroner. The expenditure in 1890 was 2,037 kroner 40 öre.)		
13. EXPENSES CONNECTED WITH THE CONVEYANCE OF THE MEAT TO THE CONTROL ESTABLISHMENTS ..	10,000	0
(Entered as in the estimates for 1891. The expenditure in 1890 was 9,117 kroner 22 öre.)		

STAMPS.

MEAT. I. CLASS. BLUE.

A

KJØBENHAVN.
COPENHAGEN.



SLAGTEHUS.
SLAUGHTER HOUSE.

MEAT. II. CLASS. BLACK.

B.



THE THREE TOWERS REPRESENT THE ARMS OF THE CITY OF COPENHAGEN.

STAMPS.

SUPPLEMENTARY CONTROL ESTABLISHMENT.

MEAT. I. CLASS. BLUE.

C.

INSFORT.
IMPORTED
(INTO CITY FOR COUNTRY.)



KJOD.
MEAT.

MEAT. II. CLASS. BLACK.

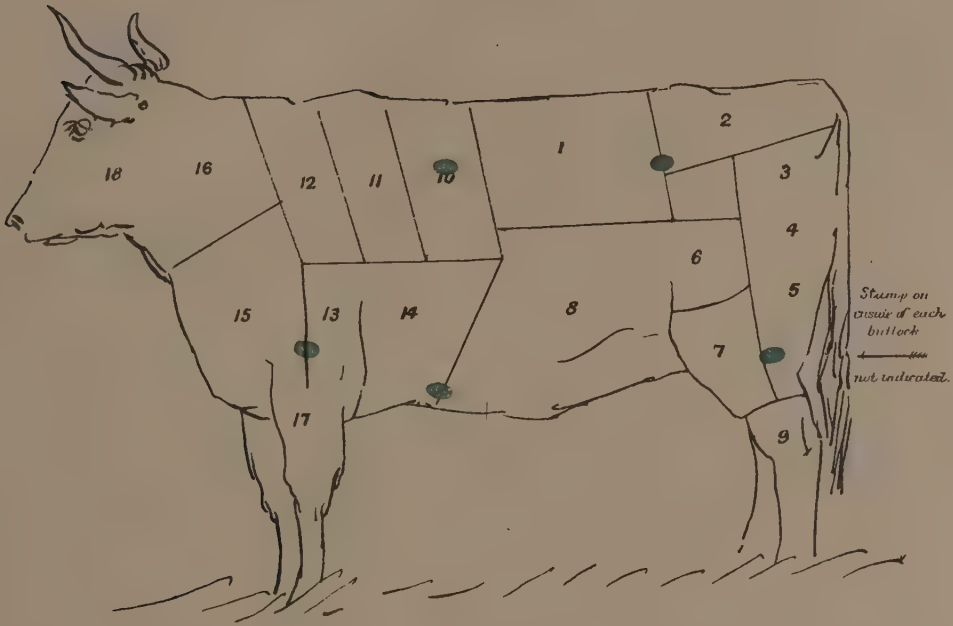
D.



E.

THE BLUE MARK INDICATES POSITION OF STAMP AFTER CARCASE IS PREPARED.

THE CARCASE IS MARKED ON BOTH SIDES.



HIND QUARTER

1. Sirloin.
2. Rump
3. Edge Bone.
4. Buttock.
5. Mouse Buttock.
6. Veing Piece.
7. Thick Flank.
8. Thin Flank.
9. Leg.
10. Fore Rib; five ribs.

FORE QUARTER.

11. Middle Rib; four ribs.
12. Chuck; three ribs.
13. Shoulder, or Leg of Mutton Piece.
14. Brisket.
15. Clod.
16. Neck or Striking Piece.
17. Skin.
18. Cheek.

F.

SHEEP.

FIG.



THE BLUE MARK INDICATES POSITION OF STAMP

EXPENDITURE—continued.

Description.	Amount.
	Kroner öre.
14. THE WORKING OF THE ESTABLISHMENT FOR DESTRUCTION OF CONDEMNED MEAT.	
Expenditure—	
1. Salaries, &c.	
Manager	1,400 0
Fireman	1,040 0
Servants	780 0
Wages	300 0
2. Light, fuel, and cleaning	1,500 0
3. Maintenance of buildings, machinery, and stores ..	600 0
4. Rent of the ground	208 18
5. Taxes and insurance	100 0
6. Keeping of horses	500 0
7. Office expenses, expenses for uniform, and unforeseen expenses	400 0
Total	6,828 18
Revenue—	
By the sale of produce	8,500 0
Profit	1,671 82
The half thereof is paid to the Government	835 91
Credited to the municipality	835 91
From this revenue is deducted the interest of the expenses of the municipality in founding the establishment, 4 per cent of 28,222 kroner 10 öre	1,728 88
Debited to the municipality	292 97
15. UNFORESEEN EXPENSES	2,500 0
(Entered as in the estimates for 1891. In 1890 there was no expenditure on this item.)	
16. PAYMENT OF INTEREST ON THE ESTABLISHMENT FUNDS.	
The expenses connected with the establishment of the cattle market and slaughter-houses were booked as ..	3,113,044 18
Expenses connected with new buildings and alterations are calculated to amount to, in 1891	20,330 0
The establishment funds may be calculated to be, at the end of 1891	3,133,374 18
Out of this sum, 4 per cent. of the amount paid for the erection of the establishment for destruction are entered under 14 B	28,222 10
Total	3,105,152 8
4 per cent. thereof	124,206 8
17. CREDITED TO THE FUND FOR RENEWAL AND EX- TENSION	12,254 32

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FOREIGN OFFICE.

1892.

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ECUADOR.

QUITO.

Mr. Haggard to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Quito, August 30, 1892.

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith some Notes on the Mineral Resources and New Mining Law of Ecuador.

I have, &c.

(Signed) W. H. D. HAGGARD.

Report on the Mineral Resources and New Mining Law of Ecuador.

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Introductory. The history of the Spanish conquest of this country is full of legends of the gold and silver with which it then abounded. When one has made due allowance for possible exaggeration it is obvious that there must have been a considerable substratum of truth underlying many of these legends; indeed, its immense richness in precious metals under its native rulers is a historical fact of unquestionable certainty.

Results of political events. In the convulsion which followed the disappearance of the Inca civilisation, and the subsequent absolute destruction by the successful insurrection of the Jivaros of the flourishing cities of Mendoza, Sevilla de Oro, and Logroño, the secret was lost, or else so jealously guarded by the Indians that it has never been revealed.

Difficulties attending exploration. The vast treasures of the district of Macas to the east of Riobamba had caused the rise in 47 years of these cities, the fame of which rivalled that of Cuzco and Lima, but they were destroyed at one fell swoop, and now the tropical forest has again closed upon the scene, and the poisoned arrow of the Indian or the no less deadly forest fever threatens any rash explorer into the secrets of the treasures of the past.

Source of revenue for erection of churches, &c., in Quito. No attempt seems ever to have been made to re-occupy this rich district. The Spaniards of Ecuador have obtained for over 300 years from the Indians in the territory immediately subject to them sufficient money to build the magnificent churches and convents which cover a quarter of the area of Quito. A small part of the money thus obtained if applied to the opening up of the country to the coast, on the one side, and to the Amazon, on the other, would have returned interest a thousand fold; would by commerce have put them in possession of the gold; and would, moreover, have enabled them to tap the veins of that precious metal at their source.

Existence of gold in neighbourhood of Quito. It is undoubted that, apart from the deserted Jivaro country, gold exists even within three or four days' march from Quito. The Napo country, as it is called from the affluent of the Amazon of that name, which rises in and traverses it, is inhabited by a tribe of peaceful Indians, ruled over by an Ecuadorian governor, who still follows the ancient practise of "repartimientos" (compulsory sales). The Indians are collected on certain days of the year, and a quantity of baize and other articles is forcibly distributed to them; for this they have to pay in gold-dust.

Specimen of gold dust, with remarks. A specimen of this gold-dust is herewith enclosed.* It is obtained by alluvial washings in the streams which have their origin in that part of the Cordilleras, to which the Cayambi, Sara Urcu, Cotopaxi, and other Quitonian mountains belong, and is evidently washed away from its original deposits. It is, of course, impossible to judge of the value or extent of these deposits, but

* Sent to Royal School of Mines.

that they exist may be considered as proved by the presence in the streams of the drift washed therefrom.

The actual specimen, which is enclosed, is from a quantity sent up to Quito in payment of some stores by an American, who has lived for many years a hermit's life in the Napo wilderness. It appears from his account that gold abounds, but that if the Indians find that they have collected more than is necessary to pay the "repartimientos" they throw it back into the river so as to avoid exciting suspicion and incurring possible pressure to force them to reveal the spots where they have found it. For the same reason it is generally believed that if they come across a nugget they grind it up into dust before paying it.

All that is wanted to bring this perfectly healthy district into easy access is a decent road between Quito and the coast, and on from Quito to the Napo. When this is made it is possible that the dreams of past ages may yet be realised, and that El Dorado may at length be found. Need of road from Quito to coast.

As, however, a lack of native enterprise and other causes may still put off for many a day the realisation of the wealth that will then enrich this country, and the world at large, it may be well to give a short account of the mines that are actually being worked in this country, which, if on a more modest scale than was expected by the "Conquistadores," are at least within reach of the coast, and consequently amenable to the modern advantages of European influence and enterprise. Delay in developing resources.

An English company is working the Zaruma Gold Mines in the province of Loja, about three days' journey from Guayaquil. This company has now been sending regular monthly shipments of gold for nearly three years, averaging about 800*l.* to 1,000*l.* a month. The company is established in London and owns about nine other mines, besides that of "Portobello," which is the one now being worked. Operations of English and native mining companies.

In the same district there is a native company, the "Quebrada," at work, and a French syndicate has been working the mines of Pacayuren with the view of ascertaining whether it would be feasible to place them on the Paris market.

There is a native mining company at work on the "Pillzhum" silver mine near Azoques, in the province of Azuay. This company has a capital of 9,000*l.*, but is only occupied in exploration, the intention being to put it on the German market as soon as the works are sufficiently advanced.

Some mineral (about 100 quintals) has been forwarded. It is said to be very rich, and that the two veins are capable of supplying a very large amount of ore. This mine lies in the mountains, where the temperature is very cold and labour and other necessities are very scarce.

In the Esmeraldas districts several speculative gold claims have been recently made along the beds of the Cachavi, Tuluabi, and in other parts of the district. There has, however, been no practical experiment made to show whether the washings are of any practical value. In the same district, however, also on the Claims in the Esmeraldas districts.

Cachavi River, explorations have been made by an American syndicate, and the results of the gold washed were considered sufficiently good to warrant the sending out from the United States of a party of engineers and workmen, who have been met lately in Esmeraldas by the American Consul-General in Quito.

A similar syndicate has been formed to work another group of mines in the same district, and the engineers are also reported as being on their way from New York.

Tulurbi River
claims.

Claims on the Tulurbi River are within the district of the property belonging to the "Ecuadorian Land Company," of London, Pailon allotment, and as they have not been made in proper legal form, that company has appealed to the legal authorities to have them set aside.

All the Esmeraldas claims are of river-bed washings only.

Chimbo
district.

In the Chimbo district, canton of Yaguachi, in the province of Guayas, at the head of the railway a gold mine has been recently opened, but no particulars are obtainable as to its probable wealth or character.

Suggestion to
English
capitalists.

It would almost seem as if every stream flowing from the Andes in these regions, both to the west and to the east, bears with it "golden sands," and it might be worth the while of English capitalists to follow the example set in the United States by ascertaining whether, even if the natural difficulties are so great as to render too risky the exploration of the sources of this wealth, it would not be feasible to work the alluvial gold in the easily approached low-lying river beds near the coast.

Result of
Monsieur van
Isschat's
efforts.

New mining
law.

Owing to the exertions of a M. van Isschat, a very energetic and intelligent French engineer who is in charge of some silver mines at a place called Pillzhum, in this country, a new mining law, reforming the previous prohibitive regulations, was passed. A summary of the principal features of this law prepared by Mr. Chambers, H.M. Consul at Guayaquil, forms an appendix to these notes (see Appendix I).

As has been shown this country is extraordinarily rich in various metals, among which are gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, coal, and petroleum, and as the legal restrictions which practically stifled all mining enterprise have been removed at the moment when the arrangement for the conversion of the debt may have, to a certain extent, restored the financial character of this country, it is possible that this law may not be without influence on the future wealth and prosperity of Ecuador.

Petroleum
syndicate.¹

It may be mentioned that immediately on the passing of the law a syndicate was formed for the purpose of taking up the rich petroleum district of St. Helena, near and to the north-west of Guayaquil, the product of which has hitherto been either only used, as it was in the time of the Incas, for pitch, or else allowed to stand in pools on the land or to run into the sea, which is covered in the neighbourhood, as I have been told by more than one observer, with floating oil. This district is absolutely on the coast, it is close to Panama and Guayaquil; it appears to be very prolific; there are two good ports; although nearly under the

equator the climate is described as very healthy owing to the sandy character of the soil, and, owing to the constant breeze either from the sea or from the neighbouring snow-clad Andes, also as very temperate. The geological formation is the same as those of the Peruvian petroleum mines, from which it is only separated by the Bay of Guayaquil. These are all taken up under much less favourable circumstances as to price and extent than is feasible for claims under the new Ecuadorian law. The syndicate is to be composed of a number of persons, each of whom by the payment of 500 sucres becomes the proprietor of 4,000,000 square metres of the oil-bearing district; this is for 20 claims, the extreme allowed by law; if he likes he can take a proportion only of this amount. These properties are then all to be "lumped" together and sold to a European or American company or companies. It seems possible, considering the gradual exhaustion of the North-American mines, and the interruption of the practical monopoly which they now enjoy, with the distance and difficulty of transport from Baku and the extraordinary advantages offered by the geographical position of St. Helena, that, supposing that the amount of oil is as great and the quality as good as is anticipated—it has been described as practically illimitable, and an English chemical expert declares it to be of excellent quality—this enterprise may in time assume great proportions, and that North and South America, Japan, China, India, Australia, and even Western Europe may ultimately be supplied with lubricants, light, and fuel from Ecuador.

P.S.—Since the foregoing was written it is stated that the American explorations to which reference has been made were very successful. A paragraph from the Panama "Star and Herald" is annexed (Appendix II.), which records this result in glowing language. Gold no doubt exists in large quantities, but it is stated that the "promotion" of the companies has been so expensive that it is practically impossible, however good the mines, they can ever pay a dividend on the nominal capital. The same cause, together with mismanagement, has ruined the Zaruma Mine, where metal also abounds. The nominal capital is stated to have been 800,000*l.*, but all that has ever been actually employed in working the mine has been about 25,000*l.* With this working capital about 1,000*l.* is sent home monthly, giving, therefore, a very good dividend on that sum, but not a satisfactory one on 800,000*l.*

A cutting from a Guayaquil bilingual paper, written, as I understand, by an English gentleman who has personally explored the districts of which he treats, is also enclosed (see Appendix III.).

APPENDIX I.

*The New Mining Law of Ecuador.**

A new law sanctioned in Quito on August 15 last, reforming the mining laws of Ecuador, has been published in the official gazette, No. 27 of August 24, 1892. The principal alterations, as compared with the previously existing laws, are as follows:—

The following articles are added to the list of mines subject to be denounced:—Sulphur, chromium, rhodium, iridium, tungsten, petroleum, and coal.

Metals and precious stones found isolated on the surface of the soil are to belong to the first finder.

The law concedes the perpetual ownership of the mines to private proprietors, on the condition of paying annually a duty for each concession, whether the mine is worked or not, and this ownership shall only be considered lost and re-assumed by the State for failure to comply with this condition, and after the proceedings dictated by this Code.

Under Article 8 any person may denounce, and obtain, in accordance with the dispositions of this Code, up to 20 concessions, always provided that they are on vacant ground, or ground not occupied by other miners, and also that they are contiguous to each other, on the course of the same vein, and without leaving intermediate spaces.

By another article the annual duty for each concession is fixed at 8 sucres (about 1*l.*).

This is to be paid in advance, and can be paid into any of the Treasurer's offices throughout the country.

Another article enacts that the mine concession shall only terminate on the failure in payment of the duty for the term fixed by this law, in which case the mine will be put up to auction by the fiscal judge for the purpose of sale to the highest bidder, with the condition that he shall go on paying the respective duty. From the amount of sale price the Treasury will retain the amount due, and the rest, after deducting costs, will be delivered to the prior owner. The latter can suspend the sale of his property by payment of double the value of the duties he owes; but he will not be admitted to make bids or offers on the day of sale, unless he pays a fine equal to the amount he owes, and the costs of the sale.

* A translation of the law has been called for and will be published, upon its receipt, in the Miscellaneous Series.

Art. 18. In the regular beds or veins each concession will be of 600 metres horizontal length, by 200 metres breadth, provided there be so much land vacant or unoccupied by other miners.

Art. 21. In the gold sands and others to which Art. 4 refers, the concession shall comprise a superficies of 50,000 square metres in the form required by the interested party, but the width shall in no case be less than 50 metres.

Art. 24. An exemption is granted for 25 years, to be counted from the promulgation of this law, from all fiscal or municipal taxes on the transfer of the proprietorship in mines, and from all royalty duties on mines or their product.

For the same period mining property shall not be charged any other contribution than that of the duty before mentioned, nor shall any fiscal or municipal dues be charged for the importation of machinery, tools, utensils, explosives, for the working of the mines, or the elaboration of their products.

The actual owners of mines can reconstitute their properties in the form determined by this Code, without prejudice to any rights acquired by other parties. The payments of concessions of mines obtained before the promulgation of this Code are to be in accordance with the measurements stipulated in the present law.

APPENDIX II.

Extract from "The Panama Star and Herald."

A NEW EL DORADO.

Millions in it and all on the Surface.

We noticed recently the departure from the Isthmus of Messrs. O. S. Gage, Russell H. Lord, and Hugh McConnell, who, with Dr. W. H. Childs of Pittsburg, Pa., had been occupied for about two months or more in examining some rich placer mines in Ecuador. A representative of the "Star and Herald" obtained from Messrs. Gage and Lord some interesting facts about the mining properties in question, which are now given to the public for the first time.

The mines are three in number, and are known as the Cachavi, Uimbi, and Playa de Oro; they are in Ecuador, near the Colombian frontier, and about 80 miles from the Pacific coast. These mines are situated in contiguous valleys, running from north-west to south-east in the order named, and are separated by low ranges of hills, which are spurs of the Western Cordillera; each valley having its own system of rivers and

streams, thus at convenient intervals providing ample water for all the necessities of hydraulic mining. These different streams and rivers empty into the Santiago River, which is a large and important stream, and furnishes facilities for navigation to within a few miles of the mining localities. At its mouth is the port of Bolivar, with a depth of 18 feet of water on the bar. Deep water is found for 20 miles from Bolivar to within a short distance of Gage City, from which point roads will be made to the different mining properties. The Ecuadorian gunboat "Cotopaxi" took the party up the Santiago 20 miles to the junction of the Cayapas River within four miles of Gage City. Fourteen miles is the greatest length of road which will be needed, and machinery can be brought from San Francisco or Panama and laid down at the mines with only one transfer. The valley of the Cachavi is washed by a river of that name, and several smaller streams. The Uimbi, Juntas, and Tigre Rivers supply water for the Uimbi valley, and the Playa de Oro has ample waters furnished by the Santiago River and its tributary, the Franklin River, lately discovered and named by Mr. Lord. The Cayapas River and its tributaries, the Sapito and Sapitito, furnish water also for the south-eastern portion of the Playa de Oro mine.

The country is so bold that at a short distance from the placer deposits the rivers run at a height of several hundred feet above, so that a pressure head of from 250 feet to 275 feet can be obtained at the mines without carrying flumes and ditches all over the country. The principal head of water is obtained from a point on the Santiago River named El Salto, where the Franklin unites with it, pouring its waters down from a precipice several hundred feet above, the water breaking into foam and spray and disappearing as it approaches the Santiago in a mass of broken rock, which it has torn from the mountains during the ages. The rivers are torrential in their character, the Uimbi having been seen to rise 11 feet in a half hour, and this is a stream from 30 yards to 60 yards wide. The Santiago, with beautiful clear cold water, is more than four times that width, and in its upper reaches is subject to all the incidents affecting mountain streams in the tropics. In placer mining this is rather an advantage than otherwise, for with dams, flumes, &c., carefully constructed and capable of resisting the rush of waters, it affords a certain and cheap means of getting rid of debris and waste of dumps, which otherwise might be troublesome.

In the Cachavi property there are about 200,000 square acres; about 100,000 square acres in the Uimbi, and 60 square miles in the Playa de Oro. These valleys, it is stated, have hitherto never been explored, and no mining work has been done except the crude "batea" work of the negroes who inhabit these districts. These negroes have a number of pits open, whence they take out a certain amount of gold every year as their necessities may dictate, for as they are neither avaricious nor ambitious they are satisfied with little. By prospecting these pits, of which there are a number, and opening others where necessary, a good

estimate of the value of the ground has been made, and this is so high that it would take the combined capitals of the banks of England and France to buy the property. For here is a veritable El Dorado, with millions of nuggets of shining gold, only awaiting the hardy miner and his hydraulic machine to turn them out in golden masses sufficient to make Wall Street turn green with envy. For the beauty of a placer mine is, as all miners will tell you, that it is so easy to prospect and to estimate its value; then if water is convenient, and places are handy into which your débris may be thrown, your fortune is a matter of a few days. In the Ecuadorian mines the pay dirt is from 15 feet to 150 feet deep throughout the 350,000 square acres which they contain, and the gold is found almost equally distributed from the surface downwards, or in mining parlance, from grass roots to bed rock. The formation is sand and clay on the surface with abundant gravel as the bed rock is reached; the presence of clay in the formation accounting for the nearly equal distribution of gold throughout, as in a loose formation such as sand and gravel the gold would be found at the bottom or on the bed rock. Mr. Lord's investigations showed an average of 1 dol. per cubic yard, of a vast number of pits sunk, and old Indian pits which were utilised. The gold is, of course, easily saved, and assays 985 fine at the mint in New York. Other investigations confirm the estimate, whence the importance of this district may be realised at a glance, and the value of the Playa de Oro mine alone, the smallest of the number, would pass into the thousands of millions. As we have before observed, the water supply is abundant and easy of employment, and good dumps of from 35 feet to 130 feet high are easily accessible by the bold abrupt banks of the rivers and streams which traverse the valleys. All the natural conditions seem to meet and unite in this favoured spot, abundant mineral with the water to wash it, and the height from which the débris may be thrown, so that it only remains to glance at one or two additional circumstances to complete this statement.

Although nearly under the equator the climate is fresh and agreeable, the temperature at night being about 70° ; from 7 A.M. to 9 A.M. 72° ; 9 A.M. to 12 noon 74° to 78° ; and from 12 noon to 4 P.M. 80° to 85° . The extreme range of the 24 hours is from 70° to 85° , and at night blankets are comfortable in camp. The natives say the region is healthy, and as it is somewhat elevated, with good drainage, climatic conditions should be favourable.

The population of the district are a rare and peculiar people. They are pure negroes, the descendants of slaves, and seem to have no admixture of any other race or strain of blood whatever. Their habits are of the most primitive kind, and they seem to have inherited strong religious predilections. They show great respect to the aged and to their masters, kneeling to them whenever met with. They invariably salute, and murmur a blessing upon the individual, whether friend or stranger. At night in their camps prayers and singing are always heard, and when asked concerning

this constant practice you are told it is to educate the children. Crime is unknown among them, and those pure and primitive people seem to have stood guard for ages over the untold treasures of this region. While not furnishing the bulk of the labour required to develop the mining properties, they will, from their peculiar traits of character, furnish valuable aid in many classes of work in the mines.

The titles to these mining properties are old Spanish grants, property held in fee simple with mining rights attached, the validity of which has been recognised in the Republic since the colonial period. The Cachavi was owned by Dr. Borja, of Guayaquil, and is now the property of the Cachavi Mining Company, of New York, with a capital of 1,000,000 dol. The Uimbi is capitalised for 2,000,000 dol., and the Playa de Oro for 10,000,000 dol., all in New York. Mr. C. G. Francklyn is President of the Playa de Oro mine, and Messrs. Steel and Dickson, and other well-known business people of the metropolis, are connected with the Cachavi and Uimbi properties. Abundant capital is guaranteed for the mines, as Mr. Gage has been successful in enlisting the efforts of many prominent people in this new southern enterprise.

The surveys of these properties are all of recent date, the first having been made in 1889 by Mr. O. E. Dougherty, who is well-known in Colombia. This was verified by Mr. F. S. Ketchum in the following year. Mr. Ketchum was from the London Exploration Company, and was specially recommended by such men as Henry Jennings and others. The final surveys were made by Mr. Russell H. Lord, hydraulic and mining engineers, whose practical experience in the business dates back to California in the sixties. Mr. Lord is on his way to California to order the plant necessary, which will be on a large scale, and he will have general charge of the work. There are no difficulties in the way in the shape of natural obstacles, and within a year's time the enterprise should be well forward in its preparatory work. Panama will be the coast headquarters of the various companies which will establish connection with this port by steamer, specially constructed for this purpose. We wish the project all possible success, as the pioneers in a field whose extent and value is practically unknown.

APPENDIX III.

Extract from the "Guayaquil Times."

The Mines of Ecuador.

Mining in Ecuador has made remarkable strides during the past few years, and at the present moment is a vital question with

us. We have only to glance at the results of the English mines at Zaruma, the "Quebrada" mine in the same district, Pillzhum, and others, to become convinced that ours is essentially a mining country and quite able to compete with the sister Republic of Peru in this respect. We have gold, silver, and copper in abundance. Our surface mines are probably unequalled, and, though possessing the smallest territory, it is the richest of any South American Republic.

The samples of gold taken from the Cayapas washings are very fine indeed, but there are washings of far richer value than those. The only advantage such mines have is their near proximity to the Pacific coast, which, owing to the rudimentary stage of roads to the interior, is naturally of paramount importance. The great thing Ecuador lacks is proper and serviceable communication with the east, for there, on the eastern slope of the great Cordilleras, lies the unearthed future wealth of the Republic.

Were a road opened a little to the north of the Llanganate mountain, as was proposed to Congress in 1824, running through Latacunga to the Pacific on the one side and passing Canelos to the Napo on the other, a matter of small expense and well worthy the attention of all interested in mining, the main difficulty would be overcome. The road could also be easily made to come out at the base of Tungurahua, which would curtail the distance considerably. Such a road would only take at most from four to five days to traverse, and would place us in direct communication with, possibly, the richest part of the earth's surface. The gold mines of Quijos and the inestimably rich banks of Napo are no myths, but positivisms. One can see the grains of gold adhering to the under surface of almost any half-embedded stone when taken up from the "playa." It needs no lens to separate them from a handful of sand, and immensely rich pockets of the precious mineral, known only to the Indians, exist, from whence, as need may require, the aboriginal extracts a sufficient quantity for his immediate wants. Oriente is fabulously rich in this respect, and would amply repay any venture. But the road and means of communication are the first steps to be considered before any practical result could be obtained therefrom. At present it would take two weeks to go there, part of the journey having to be performed a-foot; hence no steps have been taken in that direction, where lies the El Dorado.

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1893.

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NEW MINING LAW OF ECUADOR.

REFERENCE TO PREVIOUS REPORT, Miscellaneous Series No. 262.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty,
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ECUADOR.

GUAYAQUIL.

Consul Chambers to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord, *Guayaquil, December 17, 1892.*

I HAVE the honour to acknowledge due receipt of your Lordship's Despatch of September 30, and in reply thereto beg to hand you herewith a Report accompanied by a Translation of the New Mining Law of Ecuador, in accordance with the request contained in such Despatch, and to state that the remarks on the subject of the Law in question have all been embodied in the Report.

I have, &c.
(Signed) GEO. CHAMBERS.

Report on the New Mining Law of Ecuador.

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The Ecuadorian Congress of 1892 passed a new law reform- New law.
ing the mining code of the Republic, which was sanctioned on
August 15 last, and of which a translation accompanies the
(1451) A 2

The nation the owner.	present report. The principal alterations in the new law, as confirmed by the mining code reformed by it, are as follows:—
Owners of soil to allow necessary buildings.	The nation is declared to be owner of the mines, notwithstanding the proprietorship of the grounds above them. The mines of sulphur, chromium, rhodium, iridium, tungsten, petroleum, and coal, which were omitted in the previous code, are added to the new law; and whereas by the old code the mines of "coal and other fossils" belonged to the owner of the soil, they now come under the new law and will be liable to denouncement like all others. Metals and precious stones found on the surface of the soil are to belong to the first finder.
Proprietor- ship, how retained.	Under the new law the owners of the soil are bound to allow the establishment on the surface of the necessary buildings for smelting or reducing the mineral, subject to the payment of the corresponding indemnity, to be taxed by surveyors. The sixth, eighth, ninth, tenth, and eleventh Articles of the new law establish clearly the mode of obtaining and retaining proprietorship in mines under the new law; and Article 14 the manner of declaring such mines to be voluntarily abandoned.
Lost concessions.	Under the new law, the proprietorship in a mine is retained by the annual payment of 8 sucres for each concession, without the obligation (which existed under the old code) of constantly working on same (Art. 13), and of not suspending the works for more than two years (Art. 54, 1).
Extension.	The first article (see translation below) details the cases under which the concessions are lost (viz., non-payment of the patent right), and the measures to be adopted for the State to resell the mining property.
Exemptions.	Articles 18 and 21 deal with the extension to be allowed to each mining concession, the first as regards underground mines, and the latter with reference to gold washings.
Reconsti- tution.	Article 24 provides for an exemption of mining property for 25 years from the date of the law, from all fiscal or municipal dues, royalties, duties on mines, or their products, beyond the patent tax of 8 sucres for concession; and declares the importation of machinery, tools, utensils, explosives for the working of mines, or reduction of minerals, to be free from all fiscal or municipal dues for the same period.
	Article 25 (first paragraph) provides for the reconstitution of the mines, held under old grants, in the form and extensions provided by the new law.

Translation.

The Congress of the Republic of Ecuador Decrees:

The following Law reforming the Mining Code.

Art. 1. The first article of the code shall read:—"The State is owner of all mines of gold, silver, copper, mercury, tin, precious stones, petroleum, coal and other fossilised substances, despite the right to the possession, by corporations or individuals, of the surface of the earth wherein they should be situated.

"But individuals are granted the right to prospect and excavate in ground of whatever ownership, to search for mines referred to in the foregoing paragraph, to work and improve the said mines, and to dispose of them as owners, with the requisites and under the rules prescribed under the present code; with the exception of such as are actually occupied by, or let out on hire by the Treasury."

Art. 2. The second article of the code shall read:—"Private individuals can freely acquire mines of gold, silver, copper, platinum, mercury, lead, zinc, bismuth, sulphur, cobalt, nickel, tin, antimony, arsenic, iron, chromium, manganese, molybdena, rhodium, iridium, tungsten, precious stones, petroleum, coal and other fossils, whatever be their origin or the form of their position. Precious stones and minerals that may be found isolated on the surface of the ground belong to the first finder."

Art. 3. Suppress the second paragraph of Art. 4 that reads:—"Nevertheless, when the exploitation is carried on in fixed establishment, these shall form mining rights."

Art. 4. In Art. 6 suppress the words:—"But the owner of the ground is not obliged to consent to the establishment of industrial or commercial works for smelting or working," and at the end of the paragraph add: "by valuation of experts."

Art. 5. Also, at end of last paragraph of Art. 8, add:—"By valuation of experts."

Art. 6. Art. 13 shall read:—"The law concedes perpetual possession of mines to private individuals, under the condition that they pay annually for a patent for each holding, be the mine worked or not, and this possession shall be considered as lost, and revert to the State, only through failure to comply with this condition, and after having gone through the legal forms expressly mentioned in this code."

Art. 7. Suppress Art. 24.

Art. 8. Art. 26 shall read:—"There can be denounced and acquired, in accordance with the resolutions of this code, up to 20 holdings, always provided they be on unoccupied ground, or not occupied by another miner, and also that they are contiguous to each other, and on the course of the same vein, without leaving intermediate spaces."

Art. 9. Art. 31 shall read thus:—"The person who registers or denounces is obliged to lay naked the vein he has discovered, within the space of 90 days, counted from the date on which the registration is effected; sinking a shaft upon the body of the vein at least 5 metres in depth, or a horizontal tunnel of equal length in the direction of the vein, so as to be able to examine the class of mineral, the strength, direction, and inclination of this and other circumstances that establish its existence, and serve to characterise it."

Art. 10. Art. 33 shall read:—"In irregular beds or in masses or washings, the person who registers them should make sufficient excavation to prove the existence of the substance, object of the denouncement."

Art. 11. The final paragraph of Art. 34 shall be edited thus:—“This petition shall also embody the application to measure, and stating the number of holdings that may be desired, and shall be registered as well as the declaration.”

Art. 12. Eliminate Arts. 35, 36, and 41.

Art. 13. In Arts. 45 and 48, where it says “one holding,” insert “one or more holdings, should there be unoccupied ground.”

Art. 14. Arts. 50, 51, and 52 shall be framed thus:—

“Art. 50. The miner who may wish to abandon part of his holdings, should declare his intentions in writing to the judge of mines, who shall cause this declaration to be inserted in the register, and published in the same form and for the same length of time as the discoveries. Should there be mortgage creditors of this property the miner shall cause them to be previously notified of the abandonment and transfer his rights to them, should they exact it. The oldest mortgagee shall have a preferential right to the transfer of the mine.

“Art. 51. Whilst the abandonment is not made in the manner prescribed by the foregoing article; the holdings shall be considered as the property of the last holder, who shall continue liable for all the charges and obligations inherent to the proprietorship of the mine.

“Art. 52. Abandoned holdings can be registered anew by the first person who should so wish it, provided the abandonment of the mine be proved by the registration that has been made of them. The person who has abandoned them shall also be allowed to re-register them after the term for the publishing of the abandonment has elapsed.”

Art. 15. Suppress Arts. 53 to 62 inclusive, 64 and 65.

Art. 16. The 7th title of the Code shall be as follows:—

“Of the Patent; and Extinction of Mining Rights.”

“The mines specified in the first paragraph of Article 2 of this Code will pay a patent tax of 8 sucres each year for each holding.

“Each of the litigants for the right of possession of a mine is obliged to pay the whole of the tax, without right to ultimately claim this, and he who should fail to do so will lose his rights.”

“The actual owners of mines must pay for the patent without taking into consideration fractions of holdings; but they shall pay for one entire holding, even though they hold less than one.

“Proprietors of mines who enjoy the privileges granted to the under-miner of working various holdings through one single shaft will not pay the patent tax on more than 15 holdings, whatever be the extension occupied by them.

“The annual patent must be paid in advance to the fiscal Treasuries from January 1 until January 31 inclusive each year.

“The value of the patent, which should be first paid by the concessionaires on ratifying the registration or practising the measurement, shall be in proportion to the time that is wanting to

complete the annual period that expires on December 31 each year.

"The patent may be paid for in any provincial Treasury.

"If the patent be made in another province to that where the mine is situated, the chief of the receiving office shall remit, within the third day, to the treasurer of that province an authorised copy of the entry."

Art. 17. The funds arising from the mining patents shall be devoted to the opening up and repairs to roads that will connect the mining districts along the coast, and in general to all such works that may be of well-known utility to the mining industry.

"The mining concession shall only expire through failure in payment of the patent in the time prescribed by this law; in which case the mine will be offered for sale by public auction by the Judge of Letters for the purpose of adjudicating it to the highest bidder, with the condition that he will continue to pay the respective payment. From the proceeds of the sale will be retained for the Exchequer the amount owing, and the balance, after deducting costs, will be returned to the concessionaire. He can suspend the auction sale of his property by paying a sum equal to double the value of his patent debt; but he will not be admitted to bid on the day of sale unless he pays a fine equal to the amount owing, plus the costs of the suit.

"During the first 15 days of February the officer charged with collecting the value of the patents will pass in to the Court of Letters of the province a statement of the mining properties which have not paid their respective dues.

"The judge will order a notice to be published five times in a newspaper of the province, should there be one, or in default thereof by placards, in which shall be stated the date of the sale, which should take place within 40 or 50 days, calculated from the date of the first publication of the notice.

"Omissions that may be made by those who are obliged to send in the lists referred to in paragraph 1 of this article, may be rectified at the request of anybody.

"Those whose duty it is to keep the registers of mines will forward each quarter to the exchequer office a statement of the monthly concessions, or of what have been ratified by insertions in their registers during a like period."

Art. 18. Article 79 shall read:—"In the regular beds or veins each holding shall be—provided the ground is vacant or unoccupied by other mines previously measured and laid out—600 metres of horizontal length and 200 metres across or wide."

Art. 19. Article 81 shall be reformed in these terms:—"The width shall be measured horizontally, following the course of the vein, and extending to one side of it, or the other, according as the miner may wish, upon vacant ground, unoccupied by another mine previously surveyed and marked off."

Art. 20. Annual Articles 82, 85, and 86.

Art. 21. Article 84 shall read thus:—"In the gold sands, &c., mentioned in Article 4, the holding will comprise an area of

50,000 square metres, measured in the manner asked for by the interested party, but so that its breadth or width be not less than 50 metres."

Art. 22. On the extensive veins of coal and petroleum the measurement of each holding shall be 200 metres (lineal) of width or breadth by 1 kilo. long.

Art. 23. From Article 104 remove the words:—"In the case mentioned in Article 85."

Art. 24. Article 211 shall read:—"For 25 years calculated from the promulgation of the present law an exemption is granted from all fiscal and municipal taxes on the transfer of the proprietorship in mines and from all other royalty dues on mines or their produce.

"For the same period mining property shall not be charged any other contribution than that of the duty before-mentioned, nor shall any fiscal or municipal dues be charged for the importation of machinery, tools, utensils, and explosives for the working of the mines or the elaboration of their products.

"The executive authority shall regulate as soon as possible this last exemption for the purpose of avoiding fraud."

Art. 25. In place of the transitory regulation with which the code ends, insert the following: "The actual owners of mines can reconstitute their properties in the form determined by this code without prejudice to any rights acquired by other parties. For the payment of concessions of mines obtained before the promulgation of this code the proprietors should arrange the dimensions of their concessions in accordance with the measurements stipulated in the present law."

"The President of the Republic is authorised to dictate such rules as may be necessary to facilitate the payment of the patent and the auction sale of mines, and to organise the registries and the corps of engineers of the branch."

Art. 26. The Court of Justice is commissioned for the new edition of the mining code in accordance with the preceding rules and adopting the changes in enumeration and place of the articles that the reforms may render necessary.

Art. 27. The reformatory law of August 8, 1887, is abolished.

Given in Quito, capital of the Republic, on the eight day of August, One thousand eight hundred and ninety-two.

The President of the Chamber of Senators, Vicente Lucio Salazar; the President of the Chamber of Deputies, Santiago Carrasco; the Secretary of the Senate Chamber, Francisco I. Salazar, G.; the Secretary of the Chamber of Deputies, Joaquin Larrea, I.

The Government Palace in Quito, on the fifteenth day of August, One thousand eight hundred and ninety-two. Be it executed.

LUIS CORDERO.

The Minister of Justice,

PEDRO JOSÉ CEVALLOS.

FOREIGN OFFICE.

1892.

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FRANCE.

PARIS.

Lord Dufferin to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Paris, August 29, 1892.

I HAVE the honour to transmit to your Lordship herewith a Report upon the Relations between Capital and Labour in France, which has been drawn up by Mr. A. Condie Stephen, Second Secretary at this Embassy.

Mr. Stephen has taken great pains in the preparation of this Report, and I have much pleasure in drawing your Lordship's attention to the fulness of information, and the careful arrangement of the matter, which cannot fail to render it of value as a succinct summary of the present condition of the Labour Question in France.

I have, &c.

(Signed) DUFFERIN AND AVA

Report on the Relations between Labour and Capital in France.

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Summary.

The Labour and Socialist questions are so closely intertwined in France that it is impossible to give any clear notion of the one without referring to the other. Before proceeding, therefore, to examine the present relations between employer and employed, it may be well to explain as succinctly as possible what Socialism is as it is at present conceived in this country, so far as industrial problems are concerned. The chief grievance put forward by French Socialists is, that the benefits of the Revolution have been reaped by the "bourgeoisie" alone, and that none have fallen to the lot of the working classes, and the explanation given for this is as follows:—

At the end of the last century the only trade combinations existing were those formed expressly for the advantage of the privileged few; and in proclaiming industrial freedom, and abolishing the guilds in 1791, the intention of the leaders of the Revolution was to give to each workman an equal chance. Everything, in fact, was done to encourage individualism, and so strongly individualistic was the tone thus introduced into France, encouraged as it subsequently was during the Empire by the brilliant positions achieved by men of humble origin, that it was only quite recently that the efforts to induce workmen to unite together met with any measure of success. No complaint seems to have been raised against this individualistic doctrine until the employment of machinery and other improved methods of production gradually threw into the hands of capitalists advantages which were denied to the many. No sooner was this fact fully realised that a complete "volte face" was made in French democratic thought. The artisan, it was declared, had been divorced from his tools, and there was no longer any scope for individual effort unless supported by capital. Labour had become a mere article of purchase and sale, and all that the working classes had to hope for was that the market rate of wages might be raised and maintained. At the same time, as the chances of personal success grew less, the sense of dependence on the State grew greater, and democratic leaders began to teach labourers to look to the Commune, the Municipality, or the State for assistance. From this period may be said to date the spread in France of Communism, such as it was understood by the Communists in Paris in 1871, and of the Socialist doctrines which now prevail.

It may be convenient here to give a brief account of these Socialist theories, as they are at present expounded. They may be generally classified under two heads—Collectivism and Social Evolutionism. The aims of these two theories are pretty much the same, viz., co-operation, and the placing of all industries and instruments of labour under collective control for the equal benefit of all; the only difference between them is that the one is more impatient than the other, the Collectivist wishes to obtain the object in view by immediate social revolution, while the so-called Evolutionist proposes to do so by the slower process of evolution. The one

school maintains that a proper distribution of wealth can only be brought about by sweeping changes of legislation, and that the abuses and grievances inherent in the present constitution of society are so many and serious that no time should be lost in transforming the State into a Co-operative Commonwealth. If private property must be confiscated, and a few bones broken in the process, it cannot be helped. The other says, "The present period is one of social transition. The ancient order of things is rapidly crumbling to pieces, and it is only gradually that the eye can distinguish in the dim but increasing light the dawn of a better system, and the landmarks that are to guide the traveller on his way. As regards the distribution of wealth, there are signs already," it declares, "of the problem solving itself, for if the rate of interest continues to decline and the rate of wages to increase, a moment must arrive when all but a very few will be forced to work in some way or other for their living. As to collective control, enterprise is becoming more centralised every day, and the administration of undertakings of great public utility is being more and more assumed by the State or Municipality for the benefit of the many. What is necessary is to bridge over this period of suspense by liberal provision for the wants and comforts of the community at large, trusting that the tentative measures adopted may guide the movement to a happy issue."

Of these two schools of social thought the former is by far the noisier, but the more moderate theories of the latter have found a wider acceptance, and in estimating the influence of Socialist doctrines on the relations between masters and men it is important to bear this fact in mind.

Right of
industrial
association.

Up to the establishment of the Second Republic, Socialism of the character described, though sedulously fanned at different periods, had a very limited scope, but it somehow always managed to creep in and identify itself more or less with labour whenever an opportunity occurred. It was not, however, until after 1870 that the efforts of Socialists and others interested in the welfare of the working classes obtained any marked success, and even then not until the indignation aroused by the excesses of the Commune had subsided. It was only in fact in 1880 that the Chamber was induced seriously to examine the question of the right of industrial association, and only in 1884 that the Law authorising combination was voted. It is true that workmen's syndicates had for some time existed on sufferance, but they had had little more than a nominal vitality, and had been almost entirely powerless as a means of resisting capital. It is therefore unnecessary for the purposes of this report to trace their earlier history; it will suffice to describe their development since 1884.

Law of 1884.

The Law passed in that year may be said to be the Magna Charta of freedom of trade association in France. This Law, of which a translation will be found in Appendix A, authorises the formation of any syndicate for the defence of economical, industrial, commercial and agricultural interests, and declares that it is no longer an offence to concert measures with a view to bringing about a strike, and that fines, prohibitions, and interdictions inflicted or

pronounced in pursuance of such measures are no longer to be considered as an attempt to prevent the free exercise of industry and labour. It further provides that professional syndicates may establish benefit funds, and undertake the duties of registry offices for the supply of labour, and that they may meet together for the purpose of studying and defending the interests for which they were founded.

No sooner was this Law passed than advantage was taken of the privileges thus legally accorded. Syndicates of all kinds came into being, but while workmen's syndicates, which now began to be much more extensively formed, directed all their efforts towards unity, in the hope of securing more favourable conditions of labour, the associations organised by employers possessed no such harmony of aim, their object being the furtherance of the interest of special branches of industry rather than the defence of capital against labour. In order to make this point clearer, it will be well to give a short account of the syndicates now in existence, a full and detailed report on which will be found in Appendix B.

Syndicates may be classed under four separate heads—Agri- Syndicates. cultural, Employers' Industrial, Workmen's Industrial, and Mixed. Hitherto, of these four categories, the first may be said to have rendered the most practical service to its members; for it is an unquestionable fact that considerable benefit has been conferred on farmers by the protection from fraud afforded them by their syndicates in the purchase of manure. It was only in 1886 that the agricultural syndicates began to develop themselves in considerable proportion, but since that date they have increased rapidly in number, and have spread into more than 670 districts. The subscription usually paid varies from 1 fr. to 5 fr. per annum, and the number of members in July, 1891, amounted to 269,298. They also undertake to procure seed and machinery at reduced prices, but their efforts in this direction have not been so generally successful, particularly as regards the latter. It may safely be asserted, however, that although frequently unable to render all the assistance they profess to give they very often prevent farmers being shamefully imposed upon. Some of the syndicates are allowed by the terms of the Articles of Association to admit labourers, but very few have availed themselves of the privilege. Another service which these associations confer on agriculturists is the strong pressure they are able by this means to bring to bear on the Chamber, and it is not too much to say that the legislative measures recently adopted for the protection of agriculture were mainly due to the effect of their agitation.

As regards employers' industrial syndicates a glance at p. 9 Employers' of Appendix B will give an idea of their multifarious objects, syndicates. almost all of which, with the exception of charitable undertakings for the improvement of the physical, mental, and moral condition of their workmen, have to do with the special trade to which their members belong. In some cases, for instance in the coal, building, and metal trades, very formidable combinations have been formed, which have succeeded in keeping up prices, but as a rule the effect produced has not been important, the efforts of the founders

and promoters of many of them being more directed towards bringing their own names into public notice than anything else. One thing is certain, no common purpose dictates their course of action. Bad feeling exists between many of them, and each trade is careful not to fetter itself with any engagements for the benefit of employers in general which might restrict its own future action, and prevent it profiting by a good stroke of business if it came in its way. In a word, community of interest is confined to the trades themselves, and although employers talk a great deal about resisting the present labour movement, they seem unwilling, or consider it useless, to make any personal sacrifice in doing so. Perhaps the very capital they possess inclines the richer and more powerful among them to think they always have the means of weathering the storm, however it may fare with others. Be that as it may, there is no cohesion in their organisation, and it may be said that they are still far more occupied in directing an attack on the consumer, than in establishing a defence against the ever spreading attack on themselves. It is, however, right to mention that, as in the case of agricultural syndicates, employers' associations confer considerable benefit on trades by the facilities they afford for impressing their various interests on the Chamber, and in furnishing a supply of experts and arbitrators. The newspapers they publish, moreover, render occasional good service in throwing light on, and drawing public attention to, knotty questions. The number of regular employers' industrial syndicates existing in July last year amounted to 1,127, with 106,157 members, established in 235 districts, the towns where the largest number exist being:—Paris, 300; Marseilles, 59; Lyons, 56; Bordeaux, 39; Orleans, 21; Nantes, 19; Rouen, 18. The average subscription is 30 fr. a year, paid in advance.

Workmen's
trade unions.

The first thing that strikes attention in examining the statistics of workmen's trade unions (see tables between pp. 8 and 9, Appendix B) is the disproportion between the number of syndicates (1,250) and the number of members (205,152). According to the opinion of those best qualified to judge, the percentage of syndicated workmen does not at present exceed 6 per cent. to 7 per cent. On the other hand, that their number is gradually increasing there cannot be any doubt, but up to the present time the desire on the part of the working classes to join these institutions has not been at all in proportion to the alacrity displayed by the advocates of unions in forming them. This may be accounted for in two ways, either French workmen in the mass are generally sceptical as to the practical personal advantages to be obtained by such associations, or the individualism referred to is still very strong in French nature, and disinclines a good workman in times of prosperity to restrict his freedom of action by obligations which, though perhaps conducive towards raising the wages of his neighbour, may for all he knows sensibly lower his own. It is difficult in a highly vigorous nation, where some skilled workmen can occasionally earn by individual energy from 15 fr. to 20 fr. a day, to rapidly convert the labouring population to more than a lukewarm belief in the merits of unselfish combination, particularly when the whole

question is mystified and complicated by countless political and social considerations which they do not understand. It is interesting to note how many employers, to whom it is essential to get work punctually done, have been quick to observe such hesitation on the part of their best workmen, and have succeeded in preventing them from joining unions by the encouragement they have given to personal energy, and by the judicious distribution of gratuities.

But although the total amount of workmen already syndicated is comparatively small (the average number belonging to a syndicate is about 164), the network which has been formed is widespread and very formidable, and these syndicates may be regarded as half-empty *cadres* into which the vast labour forces of the country could at any moment be drafted. The well-to-do labourer, in fact, approves at present of the 1,250 syndicates, with their well-planned organisation and extensive ramifications, much in the same way as an honest citizen might approve of a well-equipped standing army, to which he does not think it necessary to attach himself while all goes well. Were bad times to come, and good and steady workmen, as well as bad ones, to be thrown out of employment, it is more than likely that the numbers would soon rapidly swell, for, though still shy of combination in practice, the majority may be said to have been thoroughly won over to it in theory. What they would probably like would be to employ it as an occasional weapon against their masters whenever they saw an immediate personal advantage to be derived from its use. Moreover, trades unions and strikes are still so inseparably connected in the mind of a Frenchman, that to belong to the former seems necessarily to involve an immediate and unavoidable resort to the latter, and as the majority regard strikes with disfavour, it is probable that while trade continues good the violent language of noisy extremists will prevent the syndicates filling as rapidly as they would if the policy preached were a little less militant. This cautious behaviour and reluctance to commit themselves is perhaps also due in some measure to the remarkable common sense of the women of the French lower classes. That their influence, as a rule, is used towards deterring workmen from joining syndicates is probable, and it is interesting to observe in talking with them how shrewdly they seem to have grasped the situation, and how needless they consider it to make personal sacrifices or run unnecessary financial risk when the tide of itself is running so high in their favour.

But if those who have placed themselves at the head of the syndicates have reason to be disappointed at the number of actual adherents, they have no need whatever to be so with the effect produced in the mind of the employing classes. If the mere shadow, so to speak, of labour combination now looming over their path can inspire so much alarm, how extensive would the power of these unions become should the movement assume larger proportions, and workmen generally take an active part in the struggle. Even as it is there is scarcely one large employer who is not busy devising some means of keeping his men in good humour, and of thus averting a crisis so far as he himself is concerned.

Details of the organisations of workmen's syndicates will be found in Appendix B. It will be seen that their chief specified objects are to obtain for their members as high a rate of wages as possible, to help those who are out of work, and to find employment for them gratis. The entrance fee rarely exceeds 1 fr.; subscriptions vary, about two-thirds of the syndicates paying 50 c., one-third 1 fr. a month, while benefit and provident funds are attached to many of them. Foremen and overlookers are usually excluded. Some syndicates give a daily allowance of from 1 fr. to 2 fr. to men out of work, others assist workmen from town to town in search of employment. The committee of administration is usually composed of as many as 15 members, and sometimes of even 30 members, without a regular president. The syndicates are distributed over 326 districts, and are principally to be found in Paris (167), Lyons (107), Marseilles (75), Bordeaux (61), St. Etienne (39), Toulouse (26), Nantes, Rouen, and Roubaix (20).

Labour
exchange.

But in order fully to understand the present strength and scope of these syndicates, it is necessary to describe the new development in connection with them. No sooner had full liberty of professional association been accorded, and syndicates established in each trade, than the leaders set to work to discover a means of enhancing their power by welding them together into one large union. In 1887, at the instance and by the efforts of its Socialist members, permission was obtained from the Municipality of Paris to establish a Labour Exchange, or Bourse du Travail, the professed object of which was to improve the relations between capital and labour by providing employers with facilities of engaging workmen, and by freeing the latter from the heavy fees incurred in getting employment through the Bureaux de Placement or registry offices, the number of which is limited. The motive assigned was an excellent one, for there was a large substratum of truth in the complaints brought against the offices in question, and had the management of the Labour Exchange fallen into the hands of practical working men uninfluenced by extreme views, the result obtained might have been satisfactory alike to employer and employed. But as it sprung from Socialism it was, perhaps, only natural that those who had fathered it should monopolise its control at the outset, particularly as the syndicates forming, so to speak, its life-blood were almost entirely composed of discontented elements ready to accept any doctrines that were preached to them. Never, perhaps, in the history of Socialism has a more powerful instrument been devised for concentrating industrial forces and centralising Socialistic thought. It was soon evident that far from improving the relations between labour and capital, the Bourse du Travail under its actual guidance could only tend to widen the gulf between the two. It is only fair, however, to the leaders to state that, so far as they were concerned, they never attempted for an instant to conceal the object they had in view. Instead of seeking means of reconciling the interests of labour and capital, no opportunity was lost of urging a strenuous resistance to the latter, and so extreme has the language of some of them been, that

it is hardly surprising that even liberal minded employers have hesitated to avail themselves of the new facilities held out for obtaining hands. Another cause which militated against the practical utility of this institution was the advantage taken of it by politicians to further personal interests. This tendency has, however, been considerably checked, and resolutions have been passed by the Bourse condemning any connection with politics. By the articles of its constitution the Bourse du Travail is dependent on, and, therefore, presumed to be under, the control of the Municipality, but although they supply the funds for its maintenance and have the right of supervision, the control exercised is purely nominal, and every attempt at interference has been strenuously and successfully opposed. Even a recent effort on the part of that body to appoint a skilled librarian to superintend the collection of labour statistics roused a storm of indignation on the ground that such a step was tantamount to introducing a spy into their midst. It is likely that as the Bourse du Travail develops in strength and the number of members increase, the possibility of any interference from without will become less and less, for few even of those town councillors who are opposed to the views of the majority of their colleagues, will be disposed to put themselves prominently forward in opposing the action of the committee of the Bourse du Travail, considering the influence the latter have over the municipal electors. The only check upon it, therefore, that is ever likely to be applied will proceed direct from the Prefecture of the Seine or the Ministry of the Interior; but each year as this new labour weapon gathers strength, the likelihood of such interference grows less, and under present political conditions, unless some very imminent danger to public order should arise, it is almost certain it will be allowed to manage its affairs as it pleases.

It is by no means certain, however, that the Labour Exchange must necessarily remain in the hands of Socialist leaders. On the contrary, it is possible that as the syndicates get more filled with workmen, and the latter become more informed on economic questions, the present strong Socialistic leaven will give way to a more rational spirit, and out of it may in time be evolved a really useful mediator between masters and men, and this Socialistic drill-house be transformed into an organisation for furthering industrial peace. It may even be that in the long run the comparative independence acquired by these syndicates, if properly understood and not abused, may confer an incalculable benefit on the French nation by gradually teaching a large section of the population to govern themselves. At present, however, there is no sign whatever of any such satisfactory issue. Other Labour Exchanges closely in touch with the parent one in Paris, and sharing its extreme views, have been founded in provincial towns, and scarcely is a dispute between master and men announced than a delegate from headquarters appears on the scene for the express purpose of preventing, if possible, any conciliation between them save on conditions that meet with the approval of the leaders. Occasionally the masters flatly refuse to have anything to do with

these delegates, in which case the efforts of the latter are confined to enlisting as many Socialist recruits as possible. As the strikers that most readily comply are more frequently the least steady and efficient of the workmen, the ranks of the syndicates continue to get filled with men who have a difficulty in finding employment, and who are consequently easily persuaded to support any views which they are told will, in the crowded state of the labour market, place them on an equality with others more fortunate in temperament or physique than themselves.

Extreme
views of the
Bourse du
Travail.

That the doctrines advocated by the Bourse du Travail are somewhat advanced may be gathered from the following extract from the preface to the report of its proceedings in 1891, which has just been issued:—"When organised workmen shall comprehend that it is wiser to unite and agree upon the common object in view, than to dispute over it, our strength will be increased tenfold, and the Labour Exchange of Paris will become the central point of the proletarian union. The Municipal Council of Paris which has shown so much solicitude for this essentially emancipating institution would not, we are convinced, allow any interference with the right of regulation so energetically claimed by the general committee. It bears in mind, too, that the efforts made by the Parisian proletariat during nearly six years have not been without effect on the foundation and definite development of this essentially industrial and Socialistic institution, which is one of the most powerful engines of emancipation for workmen. In fine, we declare that we shall not permit ourselves to swerve from the object to which we have bent our efforts up to now, and shall at all times avoid everything likely to interfere with the regular working of the Labour Exchange."

Agricultural
labourers and
Socialist
influence.

It is difficult to say how far the efforts of Socialists to win over agricultural labourers to their views has been attended with success. The peasant proprietors, who may be considered the true backbone of France, furnish, of course, but a poor recruiting ground for agitators, but with the hired labourer it is otherwise, and in view of the confusion into which the ideas of many of them are now being thrown by the spread of free thought, it is not unlikely that many of them may be attracted by the high sounding theories of Socialists. Moreover, the struggle for life among the more unfortunate of their number, though carried on under healthier conditions and in some degree happier auspices than is the case with their fellow labourers in towns, is nevertheless a harassing one, and while they suffer less from the cruel anxieties of uncertainty of employment, they suffer more from the certainty of a low wage, and the almost total absence of any hope of improving their condition. Should free thought continue to spread amongst them, and their minds be cut adrift from the steadying influence of religious teaching, it is probable that they will in time become a fertile soil for the seed of Social agitation.

"Bureaux de
Placement"
in bad odour.

Allusion has been made to the abuses in the hire of workmen through the intervention of the Bureaux de Placement, and there can be no doubt that there is some justification for the outcry against them. The high fees (see Appendix C, p. 15) which they

exact would alone justify the assertion that a reform in this system of hire is necessary. But it is not only of the high rate of fees that complaint is made, but of the facilities afforded for malpractice by possible collusion between such registry offices and employers of labour. For example, instances of the following kind have been known to occur. A journeyman baker has applied to a registry office, and on paying a fee has been found a place. Scarcely, however, has the man been taken on than on some plea or other he is dismissed, and obliged to apply again to the registry office and pay another fee, the master-baker, meanwhile, dividing the first fee with the office. These cases are, doubtless, not very common, but their occurrence from time to time lends support to the demand for the suppression of these offices. Another complaint against them is that some of them undertake a regular system of "racolage," or crimping, that is to say, they have agents who watch the railway stations and frequent the streets in order to get hold of unsophisticated workmen arriving from the country. It is also said that employers frequently visit the "Asiles de Nuit" and engage starving workmen below the current rate of wages. In many parishes municipal labour offices exist where workmen can be engaged by masters gratis, but this system of engagement is equally condemned by Socialist leaders, who are striving to obtain the suppression of all facilities of this kind in order that employers may be forced to apply to the syndicates for the labour they need. It will be seen from the table in Appendix D, p. 16, that the Bourse du Travail in Paris claims to have placed as many as 29,539 last year and to have saved workmen a sum of over 20,000*l.* The attention of those interested in this subject has recently been drawn to an example said to have been lately set by some gauze manufacturers at Calais, who have preferred to apply direct to the syndicates when in want of hands, throwing on them the responsibility of supplying good and steady ones. It is maintained that this system has so far worked well. Another instance of employers applying direct to syndicates comes from the Department of the Loire. It is stated that glass manufacturers of the Rive de Giers have likewise begun to apply to the Syndicate of Glass Blowers whenever they require workmen, and that if the workmen supplied are intemperate, uncivil, lazy, or dishonest, the master complains to the syndicate and is supplied with others in their place. Those who urge the possibility of the entire supply of labour being effected through the medium of the syndicates also point to the system in use in the printing trade, in which employers have nothing whatever to do with the hire of labour, the responsibility being left entirely to the foreman of the "équipe," or gang, that undertakes the work.

Full details respecting the rules and working of the Bourse du Travail will be found under Appendix E. Since the construction of the new Bourse at Paris, which has been erected at a total cost of about 120,000*l.*, the subsidy has been increased to 50,000 fr. (2,000*l.*), in addition to firing, lighting, and "gardiennage," the cost of which is likewise defrayed by the

Rules and
working of
"Bourse du
Travail."

Municipality. Certainly nothing could be better arranged than the new building, which is fitted up with electric light and telephonic communication, besides being well heated. There are 160 bureaux for the use of the syndicates, and on each floor there is a room set aside for discussions, while the central hall has all the appearance and is capable of serving the purposes of a Labour Parliament. There are at present 220 syndicates attached to it, four of which are women's syndicates. So far as can be judged from the contents of the bulletin published weekly, and the tone of the speeches of members of the general committee, efforts are at present chiefly directed towards endeavouring to introduce an eight hour working day, with a minimum wage of 1 fr. an hour, the suppression of the sweating system, piecework, and the "trôle" (see Appendix F), abolition of Bureaux de Placement, the collection of statistics in support of the theories advanced, and last, but not least, "la propagande," which comprises both the conversion of workmen to Socialist ideas, and the knitting of closer relations with the working classes of other countries. It has frequently been alleged by those opposed to the creation of the Bourse du Travail that this propaganda affords facilities for speculation, or, at any rate, for employing the money voted by the Municipality in providing favoured leaders with comfortable salaries; but it is difficult to understand how, out of so small a subsidy (up to the inauguration of the new building the other day it was only 20,000 fr., i.e., 800*l.*) any latitude is afforded for the practice of such abuses. It is indeed only fair to state that, so far as its finances admit of examination, those who undertake the propaganda and travel through the country, or occasionally represent the Bourse at Social or Labour Congresses abroad, are quite as conscientious from their point of view in the money they spend and in the accounts they render as other people. If occasionally a fête is organised its cost is very far below that usually incurred in such entertainments, while the salary or travelling allowance granted to its employés does not exceed 1 fr. an hour, being the rate of wage advocated by the Bourse. As the Socialists, however, openly point to the Bourse du Travail as the instrument which is ultimately to bring about the realisation of their dreams, it is perhaps not altogether unnatural that certain ratepayers who are easily scared, and who have little confidence in the common sense of the working man, should object to any portion of their rates being avowedly applied to the furtherance of such revolutionary projects.

Labour
Exchanges
in the
provinces.

Labour Exchanges have been established in Marseilles (October, 1888), Lyons (February, 1891), St. Etienne (February, 1891), Belziers (March, 1891), Montpellier (June, 1891), Nîmes (March, 1887), Toulouse (September, 1890), Cholet (July, 1891), Toulon (October, 1889), Cete, Cours, and Troyes. There are two at Bordeaux, one administered by the Municipality (founded March, 1890), the other independent (June, 1890), while others are in course of formation at St. Quentin and Nantes; and in view of the Socialist successes at the recent Municipal elections there is every

likelihood that more will soon be formed in other towns. In addition to these Bourses du Travail, groups of workmen have been marshalled in various departments under the name of Fédération d'Ouvrières, Unions de Syndicats, and Groupes Corporatifs (see Appendix E, p. 25).

Although it is, strictly speaking, laid down by the Law of 1884 Fédération
des Tabacs. that trades alone have the right to combine, powerful syndicates have been founded by railway employés, and even by workmen in the service of the State. Among the latter category may be mentioned the "Fédération des Tabacs." According to the report of a meeting of tobacco operatives held at the Bourse du Travail in Paris last December, out of a total of 20,000 (2,000 men, 18,000 women), 12,000 are syndicated, the special aims of whom appear to be to obtain larger pensions for old age, improved medical attendance, and greater equity in penalties, fines, &c., by according syndicates a right of examining the justice of such punishments, and claiming indemnity for the victims in the event of the sentences being proved to be unjust. At this meeting profit-sharing was likewise advocated, and a proposal was brought forward by the women themselves that the "préposés" (overlookers in charge of the workshops) should be men, as more likely to be just than women promoted to that position.

There is still another class of unions to which it might be well Socialisme
Catholique. to allude, viz., Catholic syndicates. Since the introduction into France of universal suffrage, and more especially of late, the Catholic Church and the party supporting it, have been directing their attention to extending the influence they already possess over portions of the rural community to industrial classes. Whether there be in reality any ulterior political motive connected with this movement is beyond the range of this report to decide, but the most casual observer of existing labour problems cannot fail to be struck with the fact that the two extreme political parties in France, by whatever motive they are actuated, are equally straining every muscle to weld the wage-earners into formidable battalions. Perhaps the distinction between the policy of the two may be described by saying, that while the one is endeavouring to convert by holding out prospects of an order of things that may never be realised, the other is seeking to enrol recruits by a system of patronage and privilege of which the ordinary workman is quite prepared occasionally to avail himself, without necessarily being converted to the doctrines preached. The definition of a "Corporation Chrétienne," as described by one of the advocates of this Catholic movement, is as follows:—The association is "a religious and economical society freely formed by the heads of industrial families (masters and men of the same trade), of which all the members are grouped into various associations of piety, with a committee of employers at its head." Its objects are threefold—(1) To re-establish Christian social life among the working classes; (2) to improve the moral and material condition of its members; (3) to attain social peace by union between employer and employed, with the object of establishing an industrial organisa-

tion conducive to justice." The number of these corporations has recently increased, and a considerable amount of money is spent in publishing and circulating newspapers and tracts expounding their views. Workmen belonging to them enjoy the protection of the clergy, whose influence over religious employers is, of course, very great, and are frequently able to do them good turns, and to find situations for their children. Moreover, as many of these corporations are liberally supported by rich laymen, charities of various kinds are connected with them, so that it is only natural that many workmen should find it to their advantage to become members. On the whole, therefore, it will be easily understood why Socialists, and those who are opposed to the interference of the Church in political and social matters, should regard this movement with some apprehension. If kept free from politics, its counteracting effect to extreme views may be beneficial, but if, on the contrary, it should prove that there is a hidden motive, it will probably do more harm than good so far as a peaceful solution of the social question is concerned. The working men of France are quick to distinguish between those who sincerely sympathise with the aspirations of the labouring community and those who feign to do so merely to secure their political support, nor is it likely that "Socialisme Catholique," as it is called, will ever help to solve the problems of the hour, nor assist in the evolution now going on, for in it is traceable, though skilfully veiled, a marked reactionary tendency, and its most liberal conceptions are instinctively founded on hierarchical ideas and prejudices, which will hardly accord with the change in the order of things that seems to be looming in the distance.

Attitude of
unionists
towards non-
unionists.

It is necessary now to allude to the attitude of unionists towards non-unionists. The number of syndicated workmen is much too small at present to allow of attempt on their part to prevent non-unionists from obtaining employment being generally successful; and it may, I think, be said that fear of the law has prevented recourse being had to such practices as rattening. Latterly, however, many syndicates have brought pressure to bear on employers with a view to bring about the dismissal of workmen against whom they have a grudge. Several interesting cases of this kind have already drawn the attention of the public, and the decisions given in the Law Courts have established precedents in connection with the Law of 1884, of which unionists have not been slow to take note. One case deserves special notice—that of a printer on stuffs named Joost, who brought an action for damages against a syndicate, of which he had previously been a member, on the ground of alleged illegal pressure having been brought to bear on his employer which led to his discharge. In giving judgment (see Appendix G) the Court of Appeal of Grenoble, before which the case was argued in October, 1890, decided that a workman discharged by any employer who may yield to threats of strike or boycotting on the part of a syndicate of workmen (unaccompanied by force or fraud) cannot use the fact of his having been so discharged as a ground for demanding damages from the

syndicate in question. Another interesting case was one decided in 1885, in which the Civil Tribunal of Lyons dismissed an action for damages brought by a firm of muslin manufacturers against a syndicate for conspiracy to boycott them by causing reports, prejudicial to them as employers of labour, to be printed and circulated. In the judgment given in this case (see Appendix G, p. 34) it was laid down that the Law of 1884 admitted the right to devise measures for bringing about a strike, and that fines, prohibitions, proscriptions, and interdictions to that effect no longer constituted according to Law attempts to prevent the free exercise of industry and labour. It was at the same time stated by the Court that to prohibit workmen from making use of advertising as a means of publishing their grievances, convoking their comrades, communicating to them the decisions arrived at, and calling upon others to act upon such decisions after measures to that effect had been concerted, would be to deprive the action contemplated of all efficacy or result.

Another interesting case regarding a decision at which loud complaints have been made by employers is also worthy of notice. A hat manufacturer at Bordeaux having a large job on hand offered the work to his employés, all of whom were members of the Hatters' Syndicate. The terms offered being considered unsatisfactory, the workmen declined the job, and the manufacturer came to an arrangement with some workmen at Barsac. Later on the Bordeaux workmen succeeded in obtaining permission from their syndicate to accept the conditions originally declined, and the manufacturer agreed to take them back, at the same time retaining the services of the Barsac men. But the Bordeaux men, as soon as they had returned, threatened to strike again if the others were kept on, and finally the manufacturer gave way. When summoned before the Council of Prud'hommes by the discharged Barsac workmen and asked for an explanation, the manufacturer replied that he was not to blame as he had no wish to discharge the Barsac workmen, and that they might remain if they chose; but the syndicated workmen persisting in their pretensions, the manufacturer gave way again, preferring to keep in with the old hands, and being summoned once more before the Council of Prud'hommes he was condemned to pay 200 fr. damages to each of the Barsac men.

Employer
mulcted in
damages.

It will, therefore, be seen that, according to the above interpretations of the Law, while workmen may recover damages when dismissed by employers through the pressure of the syndicates, employers are powerless to do so from syndicates for boycotting their establishments. Thus, at present a master who employs unionist and non-unionist men may find himself in an awkward predicament, for if he yields to the pressure of the unionist and dismisses the non-unionists he is mulcted in damages, and if he does not he not only runs the risk of a strike but of his business being destroyed by systematic proscription.* To add to his dis-

Unfair
interpretation
of Law.

* Since writing the above I have heard that the decision of the Court of Grenoble has been annulled by the Court of Cassation. (See Appendix CC, p. 196.)
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confiture, a further means of forcing him to accept syndicated men has been devised in the shape of a Bill (see Appendix H) rendering it a penal offence, punishable by imprisonment from six days to a month and a fine from 100 fr. to 2,000 fr. for any master, contractor, or foreman to hinder or interfere with the creation or working of a professional syndicate by threats of loss of employment, by refusal to engage workmen, or by dismissing them on the ground of their belonging to a union. A Bill to this effect has twice been passed by the Chamber of Deputies, and although the Senate has up to now by a large majority declined to accept it in its present shape, the tone of a recent debate in that Chamber points to the possibility of its being perhaps willing finally to accept an amended form making it, so to say, bi-lateral, and thus protecting masters as well as men. But it is unlikely that any such solution would be acceptable to the extreme party in the Lower House, who practically demand a Law the effect of which would be to give a strong fillip to workmen's combinations by greatly strengthening their liberties and privileges, while those of the employer would be left in their present vague and hampered condition. If Parliament continues to fail to arrive at any agreement in this matter, considerable injury may finally result to trade, unless the effect of the decisions in the test cases mentioned is neutralised and abuses become checked by judgments granting heavy damages to victims of vindictive and systematic persecution.

Attitude
the
authorities.

Although the attitude of the authorities is, on the whole, distinctly favourable at present to the aspirations of the working classes and much latitude and even occasional encouragement is given them to push their claims and test their theories, there is generally no hesitation on their part to put down with a strong hand any violent interference with freedom of labour. The Laws relating to violence in France are particularly stringent, and so accustomed has the nation been to subject itself to authority in all sorts of trivial as well as important affairs that, unless a movement assumes a very acute and extensive form, order is preserved without difficulty, and this fact, though it might easily lead to a misconception as to the real strength and extent of the forces at work, usually renders it easy for the Government to ensure comparatively fair play at the outset when a strike occurs. Picketing is, therefore, usually conducted in perhaps a less truculent form than in other countries, but when it takes a violent shape, the gendarmerie do not hesitate, if necessary, to protect the men by using their swords freely. Arrests on such occasions are numerous, and the sentences passed severe. In Appendix I will be found a list of the strikes which took place in 1889, and of the causes that led to them and the results obtained.

Means
adopted by
employers to
content their
men.

While Socialists have thus been taking advantage of every opportunity to encourage antagonism between masters and men, liberal minded employers and those whom self interest has forced to be liberal, have not been idle in endeavouring to devise means of keeping their employés in good humour. Large public com-

panies, have been enabled by the vast funds at their disposal to do much in that direction, and the owners of large private concerns, either by personal solicitude for the welfare of their men or by a judicious distribution of annual gratuities, have likewise generally succeeded in retaining a staff of able and fairly contented workmen, but the small employers, on whom very often the worst, and, consequently, the most discontented wage-earners filter down, have not been so successful. Often their circumstances prevent their doing more than just pay the current rate of wage, and their engrossing sympathy for their own wants and difficulties is a hindrance to their sympathising with the complaints of those they employ, many of whom they consider are better off than themselves, and this in a measure accounts for the hatred existing towards the "petit bourgeois."

What is done for workmen in large public companies may be judged from the description of the provident and benefit funds and the gratuities enjoyed by the employés of a large railway company, as set forth in Appendix J. Much has also been done by mining companies in the way of accommodating their workmen with dwellings at small cost in the neighbourhood of the works, and by providing them with the means of obtaining cheap food. A very commendable system called the "économat," that is to say, the furnishing of the necessaries of life at, or close by, the mine or manufactory at a low rate has recently been widely introduced, and refectories have been established when workmen live at some distance from the works. As regards private firms: in those cases where masters come in direct contact with their men, the relations between them are fairly good, but whether owing to the superior advantages offered or from a democratic idea that it is more becoming to their dignity to work for a company than for a "patron," workmen prefer to be employed by the former. In other cases various means are adopted for contenting the men, that found most satisfactory by the masters and most popular with the men being an annual bonus after two or three years' service, in the shape of a percentage on salaries, certain deductions being occasionally made for absences, carelessness, or misbehaviour. One manufacturer informed me that several of his men received in this way as much as 12*l.* to 15*l.* at the end of the year, while an ordinary workman might get 4*l.* or 5*l.* This bonus when given is usually calculated at about 5 per cent. of the salary, but it varies, sometimes even as much as 10 per cent. being given. When contractors are anxious to get a job finished quickly, or to protect themselves against the possibility of a strike, they promise a bonus to be distributed among the "équipe," or gang, engaged on any particular piece of work.

This system appears to work well, and to be more popular than the more complicated one by which workmen share in the profits of the enterprise; but in order that an idea may be formed of the most recent development in France in this latter direction, it may be convenient to annex in Appendix K a translation of the rules embodying the privileges in this

respect accorded by a firm to their staff at the beginning of this year. It will be seen that this form of participation assumes the character of a savings fund, and is the complement of provident and pension funds already established. The number of participators is fixed at 100, with power to add to the number. The amount of profit sharing is divided into 200 equal parts, those of less than 6 years' participation to receive 1 part, those of more than 6 and less than 12 years 2 parts, those of more than 12 years 3 parts. The remaining portions form a reserve fund to be drawn upon in bad years, or for the purpose of rewarding avoidance of waste or economy in labour, or for encouraging diligence on the part of the staff. The committee of management is composed of two partners (president and vice-president), three clerks, and four foremen appointed by the firm, and six workmen named by the workmen participators. The sum due to each profit-sharer is paid into the provident fund in his name, and cannot be withdrawn without the consent of the committee of management, and only for some serious reason. After 20 years' participation, or at 60 years of age, the profit-sharer may dispose of his capital as he likes, and in case of demise the money standing at his credit is handed over to his heirs. Should an employé leave the establishment of his own accord, or be discharged for any grave cause, he loses all right to a share of the profits, but is allowed to claim his deposits. Another form of profit-sharing adopted this year by a printing firm at Pontarlier is also described in Appendix L.

It is difficult to estimate the number of companies and firms in France which in one way or another have admitted their employés to a direct or indirect share in profits, but the table (see Appendix M) extracted from M. Charles Robert's report on this subject may afford some clue. In the list of 92 establishments, 11 only give workmen access to accounts, and in 5 alone is there co-ownership by means of shares. Another mode of interesting workmen in the success of a concern, and identifying the interests of capital and labour, is the system in use in all the large shops, by which the assistants who sell the goods receive a commission of from 2 per cent. to 3 per cent. on the sales. A further method adopted with a view of contenting their employés is the practice, which is on the increase, of usually appointing the children or relatives of the staff when vacancies occur, a practice which would seem to tend towards the revival of guilds under another form.

Profit-sharing system gaining ground. On the whole, therefore, profit-sharing in one shape or another is decidedly gaining ground; and the more enlightened employers are beginning to see that as the systematic combination of the labouring classes is gradually raising wages and reducing the hours of labour to an extent which threatens to paralyse enterprise, the only means left to take the wind out of the sails of agitation and check a fanatical attack on capital is by giving their staff an interest in their undertakings. "Workmen who join profit-sharing establishments," said a member of the Bourse du Travail two years ago, "desert the army of labour and declare war on the syndicates," and although since then some Socialists have thought it wiser to express approval of advantage being taken of any such "palliatives,"

there can be little doubt they fear the reactionary effect produced by them, and consider that they may do harm to the more sweeping policy they are intent upon.

M. Robert, perhaps the highest authority on profit-sharing in France, attributes its slow adoption to such causes as the following: that in many establishments the margin of profit is too small to admit of its being introduced; that many employers, though, perhaps, ready to follow the movement if generally adopted, are unwilling to join in setting an example; that there are a still greater number who are deterred by being under the mistaken impression that profit-sharing will diminish their authority and necessarily entail the secrets of their business being divulged to their workmen and the public. He likewise alludes to the ignorance of the working classes on economic subjects, stating that profit-sharing with its alternatives of good and bad years supposes workmen to possess patience and good sense. Another element of difficulty is the present migratory tendency of the labouring population.

Causes of
tardy
adoption.

In view of the increased interest recently taken in co-operative societies, it may be mentioned that at a congress held at Marseilles in October, 1890, a resolution was adopted to the effect that it was advisable to apply to the employés of co-operative societies the principle of profit-sharing, and consequently that workmen and assistants employed by the societies should be entitled to a percentage on the net bonuses acquired each year in addition to their salary. In reply to enquiries instituted as to the manner in which they remunerated their workmen 44 co-operative societies, comprising 19,847 members, and a staff of 301 persons, sent answers. Of these 29 give their staff an interest in the general returns, the remaining 15 confine themselves to giving gratuities. The Solidarité de Pantin has adopted a mixed system: to graduated wages it adds a proportional remuneration calculated both on the number of consumers served and the quantity of goods distributed during the month by each employé. The Société Co-opérative Alimentaire of Rethel, composed of 324 members, has a head employé who receives for himself, his wife, three daughters, and a warehouseman, $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the amount of sales, besides being lodged and provided with firing and light. On the whole the co-operative movement in France may be said to be making some progress, but to want vigour.

Co-operative
societies.

As regards the means available for settling disputes arising between employers and employed I would now venture to draw special attention to the Councils of Prud'hommes, the advantage of which system, if impartiality can be secured, it is impossible to overrate. It is unnecessary to trace the modifications and improvements which have been successfully introduced into this system. It will suffice, and be most useful for practical purposes, to give an idea in this portion of my report of its actual working; and this, I think, I can best do by summarising the regulations of the section in Paris which deals with chemical products, for it is the one which I have had the best opportunity of studying, thanks

Councils of
experts.

to the courtesy of its president. Fuller details on the subject, including its more extensive application in pursuance of a new Act passed by the Chamber of Deputies (of which a translation is annexed), and samples of the forms used in summoning the disputants and in conducting the proceedings will be found in Appendix N. I will likewise venture later on to add a few remarks with regard to the efficacy of this system in restoring good feeling, founded on observations made during the sittings I attended.

Division of
Council.

The Council is divided into two bureaux or committees, viz.: a bureau of conciliation and a bureau of judgment. The duties of the bureau of conciliation consist in doing all in its power to conciliate contending parties, referring them to the bureau of judgment in the event of their efforts being unavailing. It is composed of two members, one an employer and the other a workman, as far as possible of different industries. They preside in rotation, and hold a sitting at least three times a week. The secretary calls each case in the order set down on the roll prepared by him, and according to the order of date on which notices were sent to the parties. Default to appear is proclaimed an hour after the meeting has commenced, but the committee may proceed with the enquiry if the parties present themselves during the course of the sitting. When a dispute arises on a subject on which the prud'hommes in attendance are not competent to give an opinion the case may be referred to an expert. When both parties have been heard, the committee does all it can to conciliate them. It has the right to require the production of all documents, manufactured articles or products relating to the case; and may order all preliminary measures to be taken in order to complete the enquiry according to Law. It deliberates before making any proposal of settlement, and after having duly considered the best means of bringing about an agreement the president expresses himself in such terms as may induce the parties to agree to the proposal made, reminding them, however, that the terms of conciliation do not in any way prejudice the decision of the bureau of judgment should the proposal not be accepted. In the event of its being accepted the secretary draws up the conditions agreed upon by mutual consent, and the president urges their fair execution. In the contrary event the parties are referred to the next meeting of the bureau of judgment, and the secretary draws up an official report which need only contain a summary mention of the refusal to accept conciliation, but he must keep full notes of the respective statements of the parties, the terms which were proposed and the motives given for refusal.

Bureau of
judgment.

The bureau of judgment, to the sittings of which the public is admitted, is composed of an equal number of employers and workmen (not less than two of each) not including the president and vice-president, who preside in rotation. It meets at least once a week. If on the day appointed in the notice, issued by the secretary or by summons duly served, either of the parties fail to appear the case is judged by default. The cases are heard in order

of date, and as each one is called, the statements and the explanations of the parties are heard; the president puts such questions and makes such observations as seem necessary to the enquiry, but no member of the committee is allowed to address the parties unless authorised by the president. When the case has been heard, the Council proceeds to deliberate in secret on the judgment to be given, but if they are not sufficiently enlightened by the evidence, the enquiry may be resumed at a subsequent meeting, or the case reported on by one of its members, and such mode of enquiry adopted as may seem necessary. The secretary takes notes of the statements made by the parties for use during the deliberations, and in drawing up the judgment. Order is maintained by the president, who may have recourse to the services of the police if necessary. Counsel are not admitted, but minors may be accompanied by a parent or guardian. There is no appeal in cases involving a sum under 8*l*. The Councils are instituted at the initiative of the local Chamber of Commerce by Government decree, and the industries coming under their jurisdiction (see Appendix N, p. 88.) are classified by the Law of 1890 under four comprehensive heads, viz., metal, textile, chemical, and building. The chemical section includes tobacco, gas, beer, wine, printing, tanning, china, glass, and book-binding, and a number of other industries. Prud'hommes now receive salaries amounting on an average to 4*l*. a month. They meet in Paris at the Tribunal of Commerce, where courts and suitable offices are set aside for them. Costs, including seizure of goods in default of payment, cannot exceed 1*l*. 15*s*., those in the bureau of conciliation, if the case is settled there, are only 3*d*., and if the decision of the bureau of judgment is promptly carried out, only 4*s*. 4*d*. (see p. 116). Witnesses may be called and are obliged to attend. In cases involving sums over 8*l*. appeal may be made to the Tribunal of Commerce. The Court has the power to punish disturbances in the workshops by imprisonment for a period not exceeding three days, but this right is now rarely if ever exercised. Heads of industrial establishments may be represented by their managers, or by an employé duly empowered for that purpose. The sittings of the bureau of judgment are attended by a "huissier," who calls over the roll of cases submitted by the secretary.

In the new Bill (see Appendix N, p. 92) which codifies the various decrees by which the Prud'hommes act, various important innovations have been introduced; for instance, it is proposed that salaried clerks may appeal to their jurisdiction, and that they should not only decide disputes between employers and employed, but also those between workmen themselves. Frequent differences of this nature arise where groups of workmen are employed to perform a certain piece of work, the pay for which is to be divided among the workmen in the proportion they mutually agree upon and where it is alleged that one or more of them have wasted their time or absented themselves. Moreover, according to a declaration of the reporter to the Chamber of Deputies, working women, such as dressmakers, shop girls, &c., are to come equally

New Bill.

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within the jurisdiction of the Council, although the word "women" is not printed in the text of the Bill. Women are likewise permitted to take part in the election of the prud'hommes, and the term of residence within the district of the Council, entitling electors to vote is reduced to six months, the Councils being renewed by half their number every three years. The maximum sum with which the Councils may deal summarily is raised from 8*l.* to 20*l.* Councillors may be suspended, or their elections cancelled, if they have seriously neglected their duties, and the Council itself may be dissolved on the demand of the Minister of Commerce. Witnesses giving evidence are to be allowed 2*s.* 6*d.* or 5*s.* as indemnity for loss of time, according as they live in or out of the district. The above are the main modifications introduced by the new Bill, a study of which will perhaps enlighten the reader on a number of minor matters of detail to which it is not necessary to draw attention.

Simplicity of
procedure.

No one assisting at the sittings of these Councils can fail to be struck by the simplicity of the procedure, and a glance at the report for 1890 of the section dealing with textile trades (see Appendix N, p. 104) will give an idea of the nature of the cases, and of the relative number conciliated without requiring judgment. Out of 3,112 cases which came before the bureau of conciliation 1,339 were settled in court, and only 1,124 came up for decision before the bureau of judgment, of which 569 were subsequently withdrawn. In the chemical products' division in 1891 only 11 per cent. of the cases were brought into Court for judgment, and in 1890 only 9 per cent. There are 116 Councils of Prud'hommes in France, which dealt with about 60,000 cases in 1891, of which nearly half were heard in Paris.

Good work
done by the
bureau of
conciliation.

In several cases which I heard in the bureau of conciliation, the workman who was presiding seemed to be aware after a few questions that the applicant had no cause for complaint, and told him so, with the effect that the latter withdrew with all the appearance of a man contented at least with having had his say. On the other hand employers, when the sum in dispute is a small one, and they have not a good case, prefer to pay rather than incur the loss of time entailed by appearing in Court, and this to some extent is a protection for workmen. In like manner workmen frequently agree to a compromise proposed in the bureau of conciliation, rather than run the risk of losing their case by taking it on to the other bureau. Much good is also done by this system in protecting apprentices, and seeing that they are properly taught their trade.

Pressure on
workmen
prud'-
hommes by
Socialists.

Unfortunately attempts are now being made by Socialists to force the workmen prud'hommes to side with their class in spite of evidence, but this abuse may in a measure be checked by the Council of State, who recently nullified the election of a workman who expressed himself willing to resign at any time if his general attitude did not meet with the approval of his syndicate. As the Bourse du Travail and its ramifications are evidently bent on preventing if possible labour and capital working in harmony under present conditions, it is likely that abuses of the character above

described will increase, and the efficacy of this admirable institution be seriously crippled unless some practical means can be devised for meeting the difficulty. It is also a bad sign that the percentage of cases sent to the bureau of judgment has lately somewhat risen. But as has been shown at the beginning of the report, the workmen as a mass are not as yet prepared precipitately to throw in their lot with the risky and absolutely untested doctrines preached to them, and the majority would very likely be glad in their own hearts if this system of conciliation could be still further extended by the establishment in large companies of similar practical boards or councils composed of workmen's and employers' delegates to which they could submit their complaints, and which would often be particularly useful in settling responsibility in cases of accident. It is manifestly the policy of employers under present circumstances to do all in their power to have workmen's grievances, especially if they are of a trifling nature, ventilated as much as possible before practical men of their own class. For considering the unscrupulous manner in which in the past a labourer has been frequently "sweated" and hoodwinked, as well as the present somewhat vague knowledge he possesses with respect to his rights, it is often only too natural that he should be imbued with a feeling of, so to speak, cunning mistrust which can only be satisfactorily dissipated through his grievance being examined by his own comrades. Were it possible therefore to institute in large establishments mixed bodies similar in nature to the bureau of conciliation above described, harmony between employer and employed might frequently be restored in serious as well as trifling cases, which, if neglected, might lead workmen, who rightly or wrongly think themselves aggrieved, to grow sullen and ready to be led astray from their real interests by the first agitator who was watching for a favourable opportunity. How apt the human mind is to magnify a matter out of all proportion to its due importance, when brooding on it persistently, is too well known, and it may be that many of those who are now so vehemently, and perhaps disastrously, inveighing against capital have been primarily led into that groove of feeling by hugging to their hearts some unimportant, and possibly unfounded, grievance which, if it had been summarily satisfied, or at least freely ventilated at the outset, would have left no embittering trace.

Of course Councils of Prud'hommes have nothing to do with collective disputes; they merely deal with individual litigation. As regards differences involving strikes, a Bill has been drawn up by Government for the purpose of facilitating arbitration. In the preamble to this Bill, of which a translation is annexed in Appendix O, the reporter lays stress on the necessity of indicating the course to be followed by the contending parties in order to meet and discuss the terms of an amicable settlement; and he states that, at the suggestion of the Higher Council of Labour, it has been thought best to select the local magistrates (*juge de paix*) as the most suitable intermediary. According to the pro-

Bill
facilitating
arbitration.

visions of this Bill, employers and workmen desirous of settling their differences by arbitration, and who have been unable to agree on its conditions, may either jointly or separately, personally, or by representatives, file a declaration to that effect with the juge de paix of the locality, notifying the same to the other party or parties. Should the latter agree to arbitration, they name in their reply an equal number of delegates to that chosen by the applicants, and a sub-committee composed of this "committee of conciliation" is immediately assembled in the presence of the juge de paix, who presides over the proceedings if requested so to do, but with a consulting voice only. In the event of no agreement being arrived at, the juge de paix calls upon them to nominate a common arbitrator, or two arbitrators, who may choose a umpire. If the arbitrators do not agree as to the settlement of the dispute, or on the choice of an umpire, the failure of the arbitration is recorded in an official report. Minutes of the report and decisions are kept by the juge de paix, who delivers a copy gratis to each of the parties concerned, and sends one to the Minister of Commerce and Industry through the Prefect. The settlement, if amicable, is held good in Law; the application for arbitration, refusal to accept it, the decisions of the committee of conciliation and of the arbitrators, or the failure of such arbitration, being posted at the places reserved for official notices. The premises required for holding meetings are to be furnished, heated, and lighted at the cost of the district where they are held. With the consent of both parties the committee of conciliation may be transformed into a permanent council of conciliation and arbitration, in order either to avert or to regulate fresh differences of a collective character bearing upon the conditions of labour which may arise. It is probable that this Bill will be carried in the Chamber and Senate.

Arbitration
committees
in certain
trades.

In connection with arbitration it may be mentioned that among the articles of association of the Syndical Chamber of Butchers in Paris and the Department of the Seine is a clause empowering it to constitute itself into a paternal tribunal to settle disputes that may arise between members of the syndicate and other similar corporations (see Appendix P). An arbitration committee of this kind sits every Wednesday, and the results obtained are highly satisfactory. Another association doing good work is the Mixed Syndical Council of Papermakers, whose mission is to conciliate differences arising between employer and workmen on such questions of labour in the paper trade as may be voluntarily submitted to it before recourse is had to the jurisdiction of prud'hommes. According to its regulations, of which a translation is annexed (see Appendix P, p. 124), it consists of eight members of the Syndical Chamber of the Paper Trade (Employers) and eight members of the Working Men and Women Papermakers' Syndicate. The president and secretary are elected for one year, and chosen, one from among employers and the other from among workmen. The Council meets once a week when necessary, six forming a quorum; and whenever a collective dispute arises between bodies of workmen

and their employers, an immediate meeting takes place, and every effort is made to bring about an understanding and prevent a strike. These are the only Chambers that I have been able to hear of which at present regularly undertake the duties of arbitration and conciliation.

Passing on to further measures of a practical nature which have been adopted by Government, attention may be usefully drawn to a board which has recently been instituted for the purpose of throwing light on labour questions. A credit of 1,000*l.* having been voted by the Chamber, a decree was promulgated on January 22, 1891, establishing a "Conseil Supérieur de Travail," Higher Council of Labour, under the presidency of the Minister of Commerce. In a despatch annexed to it, addressed to the President, it was explained that the Council was founded on a basis analogous to those of the other consultative bodies attached to that Ministry, and that it was specially designed as an instrument for examining proposals and preparing solutions on which Parliament might be required to pronounce, its object being to furnish rapidly and correctly such information respecting labour questions as had previously been obtained only after costly inquiries, the result of which had for the most part not corresponded to the effort made. In accordance with the articles of the decree (see Appendix Q) the Council consists of 50 members, appointed for two years on the recommendation of the Minister of Commerce, and selected from among members of Parliament, manufacturers, workmen members of Syndical Chambers, employers and workmen's associations, corporate groups, Councils of Prud'hommes, and others specially versed in economic and social questions. In addition to the above the following serve *ex officio*, viz., the Director of Home Commerce, the Director of Technical Instruction, the Director of Railways attached to the Minister of Public Works, the Director of Roads, Navigation and Mines, the Director charged with the Supervision of the Societies of Mutual Help at the Ministry of the Interior, the Director-General of Deposits, the President of the Municipal Council of Paris, the Director-General of Public Works for the town of Paris, and the President of the Chamber of Commerce of Paris. The members of the Council are appointed for two years, half of their number being renewed every year. The Council assembles on the invitation of the Minister of Commerce, who fixes the date, duration, and programme of each session, and who may also institute a permanent commission chosen from among the members of the Council. This decree was accompanied by a further one, giving the names of those appointed, among which were only 16 workmen, the remainder being either deputies, senators, employers, or men acquainted with labour questions.

Even before the names of those appointed had been published, murmurs arose from the Labour party in the Chamber of Deputies which were loudly echoed in the workmen's syndicates, to the effect that a Council thus formed would not represent the true interests of the working classes, and that in order to satisfy their

Higher
Council of
Labour.

Murmurs in
the Labour
party.

demands it was essential that the majority of its members should be nominated directly by workmen themselves, instead of being chosen by Government. The Bourse du Travail went even so far as to draw up a counter project fixing the total number of members (in addition to eight officials) at 110, of whom 80 were to be workmen, 15 deputies and men versed in such questions, and 15 chosen from among the presidents and secretaries of employers and mixed syndicates. It was no matter of surprise, therefore, that on the appearance of the list of members selected an outcry was raised as to the composition of the Council. A meeting was forthwith held at the Bourse du Travail, and a resolution passed urging those workmen who had been appointed to refuse to act, on the ground that, composed as it was, the Council could not possibly fulfil the object for which it was intended. At the first meeting of the Council, however, in the following month, although several workmen councillors criticised the composition of the Board, only one went so far as to tender his resignation, and the Minister of Commerce, in his capacity as president, proceeded to define the functions of the Council and to submit to sub-committees the questions which it was thought demanded the earliest attention. These amounted to four, viz., arbitration, labour agencies, terms (*périodicité*) of payment and restraint of wages, and the creation of a labour bureau.

Labour
bureau.

The recommendations drawn up respecting arbitration and labour agencies have already been referred to, and those relative to wages will be found in Appendix R. It only remains therefore to allude to the Labour Bureau which has actually been established, and respecting the working of which it may be well to make a few remarks. According to the Decree published on August 21, 1891, embodying with a few alterations the suggestions of the Higher Council of Labour, the new department, which is attached to the Ministry of Commerce, and of which a fuller account is given in Appendix S, answers more to the description of a special statistical bureau than anything else, its duties being to collect and publish from time to time the fullest possible information with regard to labour in its relation to capital, and to group and draw attention to important facts from the information supplied. It is even supposed to be free from all theoretical bias, merely supplying legislation with data on labour questions which it may be called upon to treat. It consists of two sections, central and external; the latter is composed of three permanent travelling delegates, who collect information which is compared with that collected by the central section, whose duty it is to draw up the reports. The wording of the articles of the Decree guard against any interference with the work of other statistical departments, and the two sections are placed under management of a director, who receives an annual salary of from 480*l.* to 720*l.*; those of his subordinate clerks varying from a maximum of 360*l.* to a minimum of 88*l.* The total staff does not exceed 16 in number, and the annual grant for the expenses of the bureau is 6,000*l.*

Although it has been constituted on a very modest footing and ^{beset by} confines its efforts to the restricted task it has been set, its path ^{difficulties.} has not been free from difficulties. Far from assisting the Bureau the Bourses du Travail responded to the appeal made to them for information by positively declining to supply any at all on the plea that workmen had had no voice in selecting the staff of the Bureau, and that the information asked for would be used against them. This attitude on the part of the Labour Exchanges, as may be supposed, has not tended to increase the confidence of commercial classes in their sincerity, particularly as the Socialist members at their head have for some time laid stress on the disastrous consequences entailed by what is termed "production anarchique," excess of production in certain trades, which they maintain might be obviated by general and systematic collection of accurate statistics. From other quarters, however, both foreign and native, data of value have been collected, and the reports which are being drawn up, especially respecting strikes, wages, labour agencies, when published, cannot fail to be read with considerable interest. At present the money and staff at the command of the Bureau is so limited as only to allow of very slow investigation, and it is to be feared that, unless they are increased, the data, however carefully and conscientiously amassed, will often be published too late in the day to be a guide for legislation, which owing to the pressure now brought to bear upon it with respect to labour questions, is frequently obliged to take leaps in the dark. Were the distrust on the part of workmen's unions to be removed, the staff of the Bureau considerably increased, and all classes willing to co-operate, the light it might throw on labour problems would doubtless be of considerable if not permanent value. At present the two parties, capitalists and workers, would seem to be too exclusively bent on merely selecting data in support of the arguments they advance, to admit of the possibility of the collection of such general statistics as might serve to prevent the periodical recurrence of deplorable crises and possibly assist in introducing a sounder and fairer industrial system.

In order that some further idea may be obtained of the remedial ^{Remedial} measures favoured by various parties in the Chamber, it may not ^{measures.} be amiss to annex a list of Bills connected with labour which are now before it, and of which a summary will be found in Appendix T. A glance at these will show their scope and variety. The larger number are private Bills, some of which have perhaps been framed rather with a desire publicly to record sympathy with the working classes and thus engage their support at elections than with any hope of getting them passed. Many attempts have been made to pass measures of a sweeping or hazardous nature, but except in the case of the Bovier Lapierre Bill the Chamber has so far refrained from committing itself to any of a very extreme character, and those of the kind that have been passed have been rejected by the Senate. Precautionary and sometimes almost neutralising clauses have been introduced into the Labour Bills that have been carried, and efforts have been made to construct many

Necessity of
elasticity in
labour law.

of them of as tentative a character as possible, so as to enable their being easily counteracted or modified should necessity require it.

Conversation with leading authorities on labour questions in France would, indeed, encourage the belief that in the present obscurity surrounding economic problems, the only safe mode of dealing with many of them is to avoid, as far as practicable, too great precision or stringency, and to frame the laws with such elasticity as may, should disputes arise, allow of their interpretation being settled in local tribunals according to the customs of the neighbourhood. It is possible, however, that, unless checked by the common sense of the majority of the working community, the extreme Socialist doctrines which are being so generally preached may some day end in compelling Government to pass measures of a far more drastic and revolutionary nature. Instances have too frequently occurred of a small and noisy minority succeeding in imposing their will on the majority not to admit of the possibility of such a state of things happening again. As shown by the recent municipal elections, Socialism has lately been gaining ground, and any false or impolitic move on the part of the moneyed and employing classes might easily have the effect of considerably swelling its ranks. That workmen in general are so far disinclined to embrace such advanced theories in direct opposition to capital has been proved by the hesitation on their part to join the unions whose present declared purpose it is to resist and attack it; and although it is more than likely that fellow-feeling and example may lead the greater number in time to join them, it is by no means certain that they will support the extreme views of the few who now dictate their policy. There is, indeed, every reason to expect that a healthier feeling may gradually be introduced into their constitution if only the Legislature can see its way to temporise by giving satisfaction to the more pressing complaints.

On the other hand, if Government should imprudently yield to the clamour of the few, and pass any measure directly attacking property, with the present feeling against the "bourgeois" class, forces might easily be unchained, the operation of which it would be difficult, if not impossible, afterwards to control. In a highly vigorous country like this, where the soil and climate, as well as the thrift and superior intelligence of its inhabitants, so powerfully contribute to the success of individual effort, any sudden step in the direction of Communism could not fail at once to produce a paralysing effect on trade, and might easily shake its influence as a powerful nation and as a mighty civilising factor in the European community of States to its deepest foundations. Fortunately nothing of the kind has yet happened, for although there is a widespread feeling in the Chamber that the working classes are entitled to better conditions of living, and there is a strong desire on its part to free labour as much as possible from its weariness, dangers, and anxieties, no measure has been passed which can be said to directly attack capital. It is no easy matter to convince a country of the

advantages to be derived from handing over private property to the community, when, out of a population of about 37,000,000, nearly 3,000,000 hold or rent agricultural land, divided into more than 14,000,000 lots (see Appendix U), and more than 7,500,000 persons, not taking into account other investments, possess more than 140,000,000*l.* in savings banks.

The thrift of France is so important an element in any con- Inherent
siderations of the above nature that a study of the latest reports thrift.
of these banks (to be found in Appendix V) may be useful. No effort is spared by Government to encourage this inherent virtue in French character, and among many admirable measures adopted to encourage a habit of thrift may especially be mentioned the practice in vogue in schools of rewarding proficiency and diligence by crediting the boy or girl with a few francs in a savings bank, instead of giving a book, or other prize.

Allusion has been made to the general desire in the Chamber to relieve labour as much as is practicable of its anxieties. The causes of these anxieties, so far as France is concerned, may be summarised under accidents, illness, old age, and uncertainty of employment. As regards the first of these, no Employers' Liability Bill has as yet been passed, but the various measures that have been brought forward were not long ago examined by the Labour Committee of the Chamber, which has drawn up a Bill, of which-particulars are given in Appendix W. Lifting the
load of
anxiety.

This Bill is still under discussion. That it will be eventually passed with some modifications is probable. It may be mentioned also that several proposals are likewise being discussed prohibiting work by women recently confined, and compensating them for enforced temporary incapacity to work. As regards sickness, four Bills are before the Chamber, recommending the foundation of district hospitals and gratuitous medical assistance, the general provisions of which are described in Appendix X.

With respect to proposals for organising a national pension fund, that brought forward by M. Constans providing annuities for those whose incomes do not exceed 120*l.* a year has been generally considered so impracticable that it is unnecessary to describe it. No other of any weight has as yet replaced it, but the subject will doubtless be thoroughly examined by the Higher Council of Labour. In the meantime, as a sample of what is demanded in this respect by Socialists, it may be of interest to annex (in Appendix Y) a translation of a draft Bill recently presented to the Chamber, proposing to provide pensions by suppressing hereditary succession in a collateral line (*la suppression de l'hérédité en ligne collatérale*), and by a graduated tax on inherited capital.

With regard to the fourth point, uncertainty of employment, the only measure before the Chamber that can be said to bear on this problem in a general way is an Eight Hours Bill, which, how- Uncertainty
of
employment.
ever, I am informed would receive only a very limited support. The whole subject of the limitation of the hours of labour has been referred to a Parliamentary Commission, which is taking steps to discover, if possible, the views of the working classes themselves

on the subject, both as regards its general application, and its limitation to certain trades.

A classification of the population of France, statistics as to the current rate of wages and particulars with regard to a Socialist labour bureau recently formed will be found in Appendix Z.

Concluding
remarks.

I greatly fear that in the above sketch of the present position of the labour question in France, want of experience and absence of all technical knowledge may have led me to leave in obscurity important points on which it might be desirable to throw more searching light. I trust, however, that shortcomings of this nature may in a measure be atoned for by the statistics and subsidiary reports contained in the Appendices, from which those better qualified to judge will, perhaps, be able to form an opinion. My desire has been merely to set forth the plain facts of the situation. Those who have observed the weighty problems working themselves out in France will bear testimony to the difficulty of knitting together the disconnected threads of information, as well as to the liability, in studying popular movements in this country, of mistaking mere throbbings of its excessive vitality for the prelude of sweeping revolutionary change. So far as social problems are concerned the present transition phase in France may perhaps be best compared to a chemical test glass, in which various ingredients poured in by different hands are struggling for mastery, while the experimenters themselves are watching with keen anxiety in the hope of observing signs of a valuable precipitate. Individualism, combination, co-operation, and even Socialism in its wider sense are being tested in one form or another, while legislation, so far as the maintenance of public order will permit, is holding the balance pretty fairly between them all, allowing nothing to an individual which seriously interferes with the safety and comfort of the community at large.

(Signed) A. CONDIE STEPHEN.

August 16, 1892.

APPENDICES.

APPENDIX A.

LAW OF MARCH 21, 1884, RELATING TO PROFESSIONAL SYNDICATES.

Art. I.—The Law of June 14–27, 1791, and Article 416 of the Penal Code are repealed.*

Articles 291, 292, 293, and 294 of the Penal Code and the Law of April 18, 1834, are not applicable to professional syndicates.†

Art. II.—Syndicates or professional associations, even those composed of more than 20 members of the same profession or of similar professions connected therewith for the supply of special products, may be formed freely and without the authorisation of the Government.

Art. III.—The exclusive object of professional syndicates is the consideration and defence of economical, industrial, commercial, and agricultural interests.

Art. IV.—The founders of any professional syndicate shall register its articles of association and a list of the names of those who, in whatever capacity, shall be entrusted with its administration or direction. The articles shall be registered at the town hall (mairie) of the locality where the syndicate is formed, and at Paris at the Prefecture of the Seine.

* The following are the consequences of such repeal:—

- (a) The fact of having concerted measures in view of preparing for a strike is no longer an offence either as regards syndicates composed of masters, workmen or labour contractors; or as regards workmen, labour contractors, or masters who are not members of a syndicate.
- (b) Fines, prohibitions, proscriptions, and interdictions, inflicted or pronounced in pursuance of concerted measures, are no longer considered an attempt to prevent the free exercises of industry and labour. (Ministerial Circular, August 25, 1884.)

† Penal Code.—Art. 291. No association of more than 20 members, whose object is to meet every day or on certain specified days for religious purposes, may be formed except with the authorisation of the Government, and under such conditions as it may please the public authorities to impose.

Art. 292. Every association of the above character formed without such authorisation, or which, after having obtained it, shall have infringed the imposed conditions shall be dissolved.

Law of April 10, 1834, relating to associations—

Art. 1. The provisions of Art. 291, of the Penal Code are applicable to associations of more than 20 members even when such associations are divided into sections composed of a less number, and although they do not meet daily or on specified days. The authorisation of the Government may be revoked at any time.

Registration shall be renewed whenever changes are made in the direction or in the articles of association.*

The articles of association shall be communicated by the Mayor or by the Prefect of the Seine to the Procurator of the Republic.

Members of every professional syndicate entrusted with the administration or direction of such syndicate must be French citizens in the enjoyment of their civil rights.

Art. V.—Professional syndicates regularly constituted in accordance with the provisions of the present Law may meet freely for the consideration and defence of their economical, industrial, commercial, and agricultural interests.

In accordance with the second paragraph of Art. IV. the names of the syndicates of which the meetings are composed shall be published.

They cannot possess real property, nor can they appear in courts of justice.

Art. VI.—Professional syndicates of masters or workmen may take legal proceedings.

They may make use of the funds derived from subscriptions.

Nevertheless, they cannot acquire real estate other than such as shall be required for their meetings, libraries, and class-rooms for professional instruction.

They may, without authorisation, while observing the other provisions of this Law, constitute among their members special funds to be applied for mutual aid and pensions.†

They shall be at liberty to open and to carry on the management of registry offices for the supply of and demand for labour.

They may be consulted upon all differences and questions connected with the special objects of the syndicate.

In all cases of contention or dispute the advice of the syndicate may be afforded to the parties, who may take note thereof and make copies.

Art. VII.—Every member of a professional syndicate may resign at any time notwithstanding any regulations to the contrary, but without prejudice to the right of the syndicate to claim his subscription for the current year.

All those who resign membership of a syndicate retain their right to be members of mutual aid societies or societies for providing retiring pensions on account of age towards the funds of which they have contributed by subscription or donation.

Art. VIII.—When property has been acquired in a manner contrary to the provisions of Art. VI., the nullity of the purchase or of the donation may be claimed either by the Procurator of the Republic or by the parties interested.

* This provision is not made under penalty of the acts done by the syndicate becoming void. (Court of Paris, January 20, 1886.)

The documents to be registered shall be exempt from taxation and stamp duty. (Decision of the Minister of Finances, July 21, 1884.)

† Members of professional syndicates who desire to benefit by the advantages reserved to mutual aid societies, approved or recognised, should be regulated according to the special laws in such cases. (Circular of August 5, 1884.)

In the case of purchases burdened with certain conditions, the property shall be sold and the produce of the sale paid in to the funds of the association.

In cases of donation the property shall revert to the donors, their heirs or administrators.

Art. IX.—Proceedings in cases of infringement of the provisions contained in Arts. II, III, IV, V., and VI. of the present Law may be taken against the directors or administrators of syndicates, who may be punished by a fine of 16 fr. to 100 fr. The courts may also, at the instance of the Procurator of the Republic, order the syndicate to be dissolved and cancel the purchase of property effected contrary to the provisions of Art. VI.

In case of false declarations relative to the articles of association and the names or qualities of the administrators or directors the fine may be increased to 500 fr.

Art. X.—The present Law is applicable in Algeria and in the colonies of Martinique, Guadeloupe, and Réunion.

Foreign workmen and those employed as immigrants cannot be members of syndicates.

APPENDIX B.

DESCRIPTION OF SYNDICATES.

Syndicates are registered in each district in the order of date of their foundation. The description of each comprises its exact title, date of its foundation, number of its members, its registered address, and a statement of the various institutions connected with it.

The Law authorises syndicates to organise among their members mutual aid and pension funds, registry offices for the supply of labour, classes, professional schools and libraries, co-operative societies of production or consumption, mutual insurance societies against accidents while at work, fire and mortality among cattle, associations of mutual credit or for aid during slack seasons, arbitration committees, laboratories, and spaces for trying experiments.

Syndicates have continued to increase in number since the Law of March 21, 1884, came into force. 650 syndicates existed on tolerance at the time when the new Law took effect. Three months later 175 syndicates registered their articles of association. Legally constituted employers' syndicates increased by 184 in 1885, by 74 in 1886, by 239 in 1887, by 261 in 1888, by 18 in 1889, and by 127 in 1890. The number of workmen's syndicates legally constituted was 68 in 1884, the increase being 153 in 1885, 59 in 1886, 221 in 1887, 224 in 1888, 96 in 1889, and 185 in 1890. Agricultural syndicates began to be developed in considerable proportion in 1886, 214 existed in 1887, and 247 in 1888; since which time they have increased in number by about 100 annually.

The number of regularly-constituted syndicates on July 1, 1891, was 3,253, viz. :—

	Number.
Employers	1,127
Workmen	1,250
Mixed	126
Agricultural	750
Total	3,253

In addition to these there exists a certain number of irregular syndicates, *i.e.*, such as have not complied with the formalities prescribed by the Law.

These irregular syndicates decreased year by year. In July, 1884, *i.e.*, three months after the Law came into force, about 480 were known to exist, two-thirds of them being composed of workmen. Their number did not perceptibly decrease at first. While some disappeared, others, but only a few, were transformed into regularly-constituted syndicates, and some were newly formed,

principally at Paris, and the position of irregular syndicates at the end of 1886 was much the same as in 1884.

It is only about four years since that the number has perceptibly diminished, either from dissolution, or more especially on account of more and more frequent re-organisations. It may be well to add that among the syndicates formed since 1887 there are but very few that have not complied with the Law.

According to information received from the prefectures irregular syndicates now number 127. They exist at Paris and in the departments as follows:—

	Employers.	Workmen.	Mixed.	Agricultural.	Total.
Paris	5	67	...	...	72
Departments	12	35	1	7	55
Total	17	102	1	7	127

It will be observed, on comparing these figures with those given above, that with regard to the number of regular syndicates that of irregular syndicates is very restricted. The proportion is 1·5 per cent. of employers' and 8·2 per cent. of workmen's syndicates.

If to the 3,253 regular syndicates be added the irregular ones just mentioned the total of 3,380 is attained as existing on July 1, 1891. They are thus composed:—

	Employers.	Workmen.	Mixed.	Agricultural.	Total.
Regular syndicates...	1,127	1,250	126	750	3,253
Irregular syndicates ...	17	102	1	7	127
Total	1,144	1,352	127	757	3,380

Professional syndicates regularly constituted in France and Algeria on July 1, 1891, were established in 962 districts. Among them are those which, as at Paris, Marseilles, Lyons, Amiens, Troyes, Dijon, Grenoble, Orleans, Angers, Limoges, &c., comprise employers', workmen's, mixed and agricultural syndicates. Others only comprise one category of associations, and are frequently composed of one syndicate only.

The 1,127 employers' syndicates are found in 235 districts. The places where the largest number exists (except Paris, where there are 300), are Marseilles, 59; Lyons, 56; Bordeaux, 39; Orleans, 21; Nantes, 19; St. Etienne and Rouen, 18.

The 1,250 workmen's syndicates legally constituted are found in 326 districts. They principally exist in Paris, 167; Lyons, 107; Marseilles, 75; Bordeaux, 61; St. Etienne, 39; Toulouse, 26; Nantes, Rouen, and Roubaix, 20.

Mixed syndicates, 126 in number, are found in 52 districts. There are at Paris, 16; at Marseilles, 9; at Angers, 7; at Rennes, Saumur, and Limoges, 6; at Lyons, 5, &c.

The 750 agricultural syndicates, which are now much more disseminated than formerly, are found in 676 districts. Ex-

cepting Paris, where there are 6; Belley 4; Blois, Rheims, Sens, and Dijon, 3; most places have but 1 syndicate, or 2 at the most.

The greatest increase of employers' syndicates has occurred at Paris, 29; Lyons, 9; Lille, 7; Bordeaux and St. Etienne, 6. The greatest increase of workmen's syndicates has occurred at Paris, 23; Lyons, 18; St. Etienne, 13; Bordeaux, 11; Roubaix, 10; Lille and Angers, 6.

At Marseilles, Nantes, Rouen, Le Havre, Grenoble, Tours, and Rheims there has been no increase in the number of employers' syndicates. This also occurs in the number of workmen's syndicates at Marseilles, Nantes, Nîmes, Saint Quentin, and Grenoble.

The position of the unions of syndicates formed under Art. V. of the Law of March 21, 1884, has only changed to an important extent in so far as workmen's unions are concerned. There were 24 in existence in 1890, but on account of three dissolutions and six formations the number is now 27.

It will be observed that among the new unions there is one, the "Travailleurs des Ardennes," which centralises no less than 41 syndical chambers, representing a staff of about 7,000 workmen. The most important of the unions which has disappeared, namely, that of the Syndical Chambers of Rouen, only ceased to exist as a syndical federation; it was transformed into a co-operative society for articles of consumption, and is still carried on as such.

Finally, the number of unions of mixed syndicates has risen from 1 to 5, but it appears that these unions, whose influence is purely local, are composed of only a very small number of syndicates.

A comparative table is given below of the numbers of employers and workmen engaged in commerce, industry, and agriculture, showing the class of members of which the syndicates were composed on July 1, 1890, and July 1, 1891.

The figures from which this table was drawn up are taken from the annual reports of the prefects, which are verified every year with the greatest care. It is, however, right to mention that in 1890 the number of members could not be controlled in 73 syndicates, nor in 79 syndicates in 1891.

In the table there has been attributed to these associations the number of members stated in the previous and most recent reports from the prefectures.

Comparison of the figures giving the number of the members of syndicates shows an important progress. These numbers have considerably increased in 51 departments; in 24 departments they have either remained stationary, or have only increased in a very small proportion; and in 15 departments they have diminished.

The increase has occurred principally in the departments of the Seine, Nord, Loire, Pas-de-Calais, Ardennes, and Rhône.

The total number of employers has increased by 12,746, and of workmen by 65,460. Mixed syndicates have increased by

1,677. The increase in the number of members of agricultural syndicates has reached 35,064, and the total difference amounts to 114,947.

The figures showing the number of the members of the various syndicates for the last two years as compared with the effective total of employers and workmen of different professions, and that of the principal agricultural enterprises existing in France, are in the following proportion :—

Description.	1890.	1891.
	Per Cent.	Per Cent.
Syndicated employers	4.7	5.3
workmen and employés (farm servants excepted)	4.2	6.2
Syndicated agriculturists	7.5	8.7
Average (inclusive of members of mixed syndicates)	5.7	7.0

The professions having the greatest number of syndical chambers are : Building industries, including architects, masons, stone-cutters, carpenters, bricklayers, tilers, slaters and others, cabinet-makers, painters, locksmiths, sawyers, plasterers, &c., numbering 322 syndicates (84 employers', 216 workmen's, and 22 mixed). The metal trades, including fitters, mechanics, bolters, founders and moulders, smiths, &c., number 163 syndicates (25 employers', 130 workmen's, and 8 mixed); bakers, 162 syndicates (130 employers', 30 workmen's, and 2 mixed); printing trades (printers, type-setters, lithographers, &c.), 132 syndicates (13 employers', 116 workmen's, and 8 mixed); weavers and spinners 103 syndicates (9 employers', 85 workmen's, and 9 mixed); wholesale dealers in beverages (spirits, wines, beer, cider, &c.), 86 syndicates (85 employers' and 1 mixed); chemists and druggists, 70 employers' syndicates; the shoe trade and industries relating thereto, 63 syndicates (12 employers', 46 workmen's, and 5 mixed); hatters, 61 syndicates (11 employers' and 50 workmen's); butchers, 55 syndicates (47 employers' and 8 workmen's); retail dealers in beverages 53 syndicates (28 employers', 19 workmen's, and 6 mixed); upholsterers and furniture makers, 46 syndicates (21 employers', 23 workmen's, and 2 mixed).

TABLE showing Movement of Professional Syndicates constituted according to the Law of March 21, 1884, on July 1 of each Year.

Years.	Industrial and Commercial Syndicates.			Agricultural Syndicates.	Total.
	Employers.	Workmen.	Mixed		
1884	101	68	1	5	175*
1885	285	221	4	39	549
1886	359	280	8	93	740
1887	598	501	45	214	1,358
1888	859	725	78	461	2,123
1889	877	821	69	557	2,324
1890	1,004	1,006	97	648	2,755
1891	1,127	1,250	126	750	3,253

* The figure 175 entered for 1884 represents, not the total number of professional associations existing at that date, but that of the syndicates which, either before or after the Law came into force, were legally constituted in 1884. (*Trade Observations*, p. 4.)

(See table facing.)

COMPARATIVE Table of the Number of Professional Syndicates Constituted in France and Algeria according to the Law of March 21, 1884, on July 1, 1890, and July 1, 1891.

Departments.	Professional Syndicates Existing on July 1, 1890.					Professional Syndicates Existing on July 1, 1891.					Difference.	
	Industrial and Commercial Syndicates.			Agricultural Syndicates.	Total.	Industrial and Commercial Syndicates.			Agricultural Syndicates.	Total.	Increase.	Decrease.
	Employers.	Workmen.	Mixed.			Employers.	Workmen.	Mixed.				
Ain	5	7	..	19	31	6	9	..	24	39	8	..
Aisne	10	14	1	5	30	9	20	1	5	35	5	..
Allier	6	11	1	1	19	6	14	1	2	23	4	..
Alpes (Basses-)	..	2	..	4	6	..	2	..	4	6	..	..
Alpes (Hautes-)	1	..	..	3	4	2	..	..	4	6	2	..
Alpes-Maritimes	11	8	1	1	21	11	10	2	3	26	5	..
Ardèche	7	2	..	7	16	6	5	..	10	21	5	..
Ardennes	2	26	..	2	30	4	57	..	2	63	33	..
Ariège	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	..	1	1	..	..
Aube	13	5	1	4	23	12	9	1	4	26	3	..
Aude	6	2	1	3	12	4	4	3	5	16	4	..
Aveyron	2	5	..	4	11	2	5	..	3	10	..	1
Bouches-du-Rhône	64	87	9	10	170	66	87	9	16	178	8	..
Calvados	6	1	1	2	10	6	1	3	3	13	3	..
Cantal	..	..	..	2	2	..	..	..	1	1	..	1
Charente	6	6	..	24	36	6	7	..	24	37	1	..
Charente-Inférieure	8	1	..	10	19	8	2	..	10	20	1	..
Cher	8	12	..	6	26	8	11	..	6	25	..	1
Corrèze	2	2	..	4	8	5	2	..	3	10	2	..
Corse	..	..	..	2	2	..	..	..	2	2	..	..
Côte-d'Or	16	15	1	24	56	19	20	1	32	72	16	..
Côtes-du-Nord	1	..	..	12	13	1	2	..	20	23	10	..
Creuse	..	3	..	2	5	..	3	..	2	5	..	..
Dordogne	2	4	..	5	11	2	4	1	8	15	4	..
Doubs	6	6	..	6	18	12	10	..	7	29	11	..
Drôme	5	8	..	24	37	6	9	..	26	41	4	..
Eure	5	2	..	11	18	5	4	1	12	22	4	..
Eure-et-Loir	3	3	..	7	13	4	4	..	6	14	1	..
Finistère	4	..	..	8	12	6	..	1	11	18	6	..
Gard	5	14	..	4	23	5	16	..	6	27	4	..
Garonne (Haute-)	7	22	..	4	33	9	26	..	5	40	7	..
Gers	1	..	..	17	18	1	1	..	20	22	4	..
Gironde	37	54	4	12	107	44	73	5	12	134	27	..
Hérault	8	13	1	10	32	9	20	1	14	44	12	..
Ille-et-Vilaine	6	4	5	6	21	9	4	6	6	25	4	..
Indre	3	1	..	12	16	3	2	..	12	17	1	..
Indre-et-Loire	11	8	1	8	28	11	15	1	15	42	14	..
Isère	16	18	1	19	54	17	23	1	26	67	13	..
Jura	4	5	..	5	14	4	5	..	6	15	1	..
Landes	1	1	..	3	5	1	2	..	3	6	1	..
Loir-et-Cher	7	..	1	22	30	7	..	1	24	32	2	..
Loire	21	55	..	5	81	29	77	..	6	112	31	..
Loire (Haute-)	3	1	..	..	4	4	6	..	1	11	7	..
Loire-Inférieure	23	24	2	1	50	22	25	5	2	54	4	..
Loiret	18	8	2	12	40	21	8	2	14	45	5	..
Lot	1	1	..	7	9	1	2	..	8	11	2	..
Lot-et-Garonne	5	6	1	12	24	5	8	1	10	24	..	..
Lozère	..	..	..	4	4	..	..	..	3	3	..	1
Maine-et-Loire	11	19	12	10	52	16	27	21	14	78	26	..
Manche	3	2	..	3	8	4	2	..	3	9	1	..
Marne	20	6	1	16	43	19	6	1	20	46	3	..
Marne (Haute-)	1	..	..	4	5	1	1	..	13	15	10	..
Mayenne	2	..	2	2	6	2	1	3	2	8	2	..
Meurthe-et-Moselle	8	6	..	25	39	9	13	..	21	43	4	..
Meuse	3	3	1	4	11	3	5	1	5	14	3	..
Morbihan	2	3	..	13	18	4	3	..	15	22	4	..
Nièvre	6	3	..	1	10	9	3	..	1	13	3	..
Nord	25	39	10	3	77	40	63	11	3	117	40	..
Oise	6	7	..	2	15	7	9	..	2	18	3	..
Orne	4	3	1	8	16	4	4	1	8	17	1	..
Pas-de-Calais	17	12	..	11	40	21	19	..	11	51	11	..
Puy-de-Dôme	4	5	2	3	14	4	3	2	3	12	..	2
Pyrénées (Basses-)	8	7	2	7	24	8	8	2	6	24	..	..
Pyrénées (Hautes-)	2	..	..	1	3	2	1	..	1	4	1	..
Pyrénées-Orientales	5	2	1	2	10	5	3	1	1	10	..	..
Rhin (Haut-)	1	1	..	..	2	2	1	..	1	4	2	..
Rhône	54	103	5	14	176	64	125	5	16	210	34	..
Saône (Haute-)	1	3	..	4	8	2	3	..	5	10	2	..
Saône-et-Loire	8	13	..	14	35	8	13	..	14	35	..	..
Sarthe	5	9	..	16	30	5	7	..	17	29	..	1
Savoie	7	5	..	4	16	7	6	..	3	16	..	..
Savoie (Haute-)	1	1	1	3	6	1	1	1	3	6	..	..
Seine	273	149	15	8	445	302	172	16	9	499	54	..
Seine-Inférieure	42	31	2	6	81	41	32	2	6	81	..	..
Seine-et-Marne	10	1	..	5	16	11	..	..	5	16	..	..
Seine-et-Oise	17	10	..	6	33	19	10	..	8	37	4	..
Sèvres (Deux-)	5	5	..	3	13	5	4	..	4	13	..	..
Somme	13	12	1	3	29	14	14	1	3	32	3	..
Tarn	10	17	..	4	31	10	17	..	5	32	1	..
Tarn-et-Garonne	3	3	..	3	9	4	3	..	6	13	4	..
Var	4	7	1	8	20	2	8	1	7	18	..	2
Vaucluse	10	7	..	6	23	8	3	..	6	17	..	6
Vendée	2	..	..	4	6	4	..	..	6	10	4	..
Vienne	6	4	3	4	17	5	4	3	5	17	..	..
Vienne (Haute-)	9	8	2	2	21	14	7	6	2	29	8	..
Vosges	5	3	..	7	15	5	2	..	8	15	..	..
Yonne	5	1	..	28	34	6	2	..	29	37	3	..
Alger	6	14	1	2	23	5	15	1	2	23	..	..
Constantine	1	8	..	1	10	3	8	..	..	11	1	..
Oran	3	7	..	2	12	4	8	..	2	14	2	..
Total	1,004	1,006	97	648	2,755	1,127	1,250	126	750	3,253	513	15
Total increase	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	498	..

COMPARATIVE Table of the Numbers of Employers and Workmen Engaged in Commerce, Industry, &c., and of Agriculturists who were Members of Professional Syndicates on July 1, 1890, and July 1, 1891.

Departments.	Members of Syndicates Existing on July 1, 1890.					Members of Syndicates Existing on July 1, 1891.					Differences.	
	Industrial and Commercial Syndicates.			Agricultural Syndicates.	Total.	Industrial and Commercial Syndicates.			Agricultural Syndicates.	Total.	Increase.	Decrease.
	Employers.	Workmen.	Mixed.			Employers.	Workmen.	Mixed.				
Ain	264	644	..	3,060	3,968	262	700	..	4,338	5,300	1,332	..
Aisne	315	4,458	94	950	5,817	279	1,739	99	1,382	3,499	..	2,318
Allier	327	523	62	610	1,522	316	573	40	1,159	2,088	566	..
Alpes (Basses-)	..	68	..	583	651	..	60	..	1,535	1,595	944	..
Alpes (Hautes-)	70	..	..	366	436	95	..	..	479	574	138	..
Alpes-Maritimes	553	1,011	15	45	1,624	547	1,172	52	869	2,640	1,016	..
Ardèche	595	380	..	3,039	4,014	572	813	..	5,562	6,947	2,933	..
Ardenne	71	3,790	..	4,400	8,261	193	9,352	..	4,900	14,445	6,184	..
Ariège	..	..	..	1,821	1,821	..	..	..	1,364	1,364	..	457
Aube	696	564	69	2,098	3,427	624	804	69	2,098	3,595	168	..
Aude	312	78	105	787	1,282	195	106	238	1,178	1,717	435	..
Aveyron	55	547	..	484	1,086	54	705	..	617	1,376	290	..
Bouches-du-Rhône	4,796	10,745	637	913	17,091	5,831	11,887	430	922	19,070	1,979	..
Calvados	323	112	14	2,130	2,579	321	91	46	2,195	2,656	77	..
Cantal	..	..	..	1,246	1,246	..	..	..	215	215	..	1,031
Charente	268	128	..	10,430	10,826	260	194	..	10,982	11,436	610	..
Charente-Inférieure	306	19	..	16,804	17,129	308	106	..	16,838	17,252	123	..
Cher	301	621	..	1,895	2,817	277	799	..	2,150	3,226	409	..
Corrèze	144	55	..	383	582	222	77	..	998	1,297	715	..
Corse	..	..	..	118	118	..	..	..	119	119	1	..
Côte-d'Or	887	746	12	5,153	6,798	1,772	1,070	10	6,059	8,911	2,113	..
Côtes-du-Nord	18	..	..	697	715	23	32	..	2,098	2,153	1,438	..
Creuse	..	80	..	820	900	..	85	..	850	935	35	..
Dordogne	96	130	..	2,147	2,373	92	143	12	3,012	3,259	886	..
Doubs	157	407	..	1,279	1,843	465	686	..	2,086	3,237	1,394	..
Drôme	249	418	..	5,250	5,917	257	597	..	6,140	6,994	1,077	..
Eure	197	81	..	2,464	2,742	193	83	36	2,816	3,128	386	..
Eure-et-Loir	130	89	..	3,855	3,574	241	70	..	3,679	3,990	416	..
Finistère	104	..	..	1,134	1,238	107	..	32	1,064	1,203	..	35
Gard	330	1,394	..	1,548	3,272	334	1,580	..	1,969	3,883	611	..
Garonne (Haute-)	956	1,379	..	2,170	4,505	1,276	1,262	..	2,649	5,187	682	..
Gers	20	..	..	3,080	3,100	20	30	..	3,494	3,544	444	..
Gironde	2,228	4,906	603	7,146	14,883	3,151	7,348	639	7,168	18,306	3,423	..
Hérault	423	782	65	2,508	3,778	505	1,028	65	2,749	4,347	569	..
Ille-et-Vilaine	275	1,337	979	1,908	4,499	308	1,241	1,021	833	3,403	..	1,096
Indre	115	30	..	5,033	5,178	115	1,225	..	5,718	7,058	1,880	..
Indre-et-Loire	980	445	37	2,760	4,222	757	1,682	23	4,317	6,779	2,557	..
Isère	553	2,110	25	2,775	5,463	681	2,504	25	3,785	6,995	1,532	..
Jura	217	450	..	2,560	3,227	851	552	..	3,614	5,017	1,790	..
Landes	69	28	..	2,437	2,534	58	73	..	2,338	2,469	..	65
Loir-et-Cher	378	..	60	6,232	6,670	348	..	50	7,698	8,096	1,426	..
Loire	1,196	11,420	..	904	13,520	1,418	20,032	..	873	22,323	8,803	..
Loire (Haute-)	152	18	..	..	170	149	220	..	700	1,069	899	..
Loire-Inférieure	1,412	1,479	213	1,255	4,359	1,342	1,399	656	1,289	4,686	327	..
Loiret	479	250	125	6,325	7,179	583	229	136	6,455	7,403	224	..
Lot	28	16	..	940	984	22	52	..	1,022	1,096	112	..
Lot-et-Garonne	219	155	15	4,647	5,036	134	304	12	5,839	6,289	1,253	..
Lozère	..	..	..	671	671	..	..	..	468	468	..	203
Maine-et-Loire	351	2,194	591	2,174	5,310	423	4,092	337	4,176	9,028	3,718	..
Manche	79	34	..	3,290	3,403	113	34	..	3,330	3,477	74	..
Marne	1,214	521	12	6,673	8,420	1,201	408	12	7,806	9,427	1,007	..
Marne (Haute-)	135	..	..	719	854	75	15	..	1,914	2,004	1,150	..
Mayenne	82	..	101	907	1,090	87	631	291	1,266	2,275	1,185	..
Meurthe-et-Moselle	383	416	..	5,064	5,863	508	1,631	..	5,107	7,246	1,383	..
Meuse	155	88	50	1,354	1,647	135	493	50	1,720	2,398	751	..
Morbihan	79	116	..	2,166	2,361	111	105	..	2,250	2,466	105	..
Nièvre	179	220	..	900	1,299	295	113	..	900	1,308	9	..
Nord	1,029	5,284	3,018	438	9,769	2,205	15,332	4,317	417	22,271	12,502	..
Oise	241	522	..	1,430	2,193	246	568	..	1,656	2,500	307	..
Orne	115	88	21	2,474	2,698	128	207	21	2,639	2,995	297	..
Pas-de-Calais	613	10,897	..	1,724	13,144	767	18,916	..	1,775	21,458	8,314	..
Puy-de-Dôme	145	371	95	5,587	6,198	163	171	93	5,527	5,954	..	244
Pyrénées (Basses-)	276	162	99	2,067	2,604	234	316	109	2,161	2,820	216	..
Pyrénées (Hautes-)	79	..	..	325	404	163	45	..	226	434	30	..
Pyrénées-Orientales	259	91	12	621	983	244	104	15	644	1,007	24	..
Rhin (Haut-)	20	16	..	..	36	36	25	..	201	262	226	..
Rhône	5,081	15,353	3,047	3,331	26,812	5,936	17,418	2,060	6,462	31,876	5,064	..
Saône (Haute-)	39	316	..	3,528	3,883	55	306	..	3,792	4,153	270	..
Saône-et-Loire	345	2,303	..	4,142	6,790	360	1,594	..	3,789	5,743	..	1,047
Sarthe	269	274	..	7,127	7,670	259	152	..	9,360	9,771	2,101	..
Savoie	241	166	..	2,293	2,700	219	164	..	2,077	2,460	..	240
Savoie (Haute-)	13	16	87	2,503	2,619	16	15	40	3,337	3,408	789	..
Seine	48,561	37,168	2,940	9,672	98,341	53,813	58,514	3,281	10,168	125,776	27,435	..
Seine-Inférieure	1,898	2,193	185	826	5,102	1,756	2,301	260	851	5,168	66	..
Seine-et-Marne	368	5	..	2,336	2,709	369	..	..	2,477	2,846	137	..
Seine-et-Oise	1,073	473	..	746	2,292	1,482	456	..	901	2,839	547	..
Sèvres (Deux-)	327	143	..	4,219	4,689	205	65	..	4,710	4,980	291	..
Somme	721	1,946	28	4,421	7,116	728	1,990	28	1,598	4,254	..	2,862
Tarn	352	2,567	..	738	3,657	345	2,601	..	821	3,767	110	..
Tarn-et-Garonne	57	77	..	1,005	1,139	91	77	..	1,042	1,210	71	..
Var	172	260	35	1,440	1,907	100	369	25	1,396	1,890	..	17
Vaucluse	5,721	290	..	1,815	7,826	5,704	92	..	1,963	7,759	..	67
Vendée	127	..	..	1,135	1,262	239	..	..	1,717	1,956	694	..
Vienne	185	463	468	9,430	10,546	152	469	478	11,115	12,214	1,668	..
Vienne (Haute-)	257	496	86	214	1,053	532	371	492	383	1,778	725	..
Vosges	196	200	..	1,904	2,300	231	96	..	2,200	2,527	227	..
Yonne	468	78	..	3,869	4,415	426	90	..	4,584	5,100	685	..
Alger	181	1,467	91	65	1,804	850	1,367	173	59	1,749	..	55
Constantine	47	367	..	159	573	216	315	..	..	531	..	42
Oran	14	248	..	43	305	81	416	..	159	656	351	..
Total	93,411	139,692	14,096	234,234	481,433	106,157	205,152	15,773	269,298	596,880	124,726	9,779
Total increase	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	114,947	..

INSTITUTIONS and various Foundations by Professional Syndicates
existing in France on July 1, 1891.

Class of Institution or Foundations.	Class of Syndicate Founders.				Total.
	Industrial and Commercial Syndicates.			Agricultural Syndicates.	
	Employers.	Workmen.	Mixed.		
Mutual aid societies or funds ...	33	240	24	14	311
Provident funds and savings banks ...	2	31	2	...	35
Provident funds for aid during slack seasons ...	...	63	2	...	65
Mutual credit funds ...	3	2	1	2	8
Retiring pension funds ...	6	25	3	...	34
Charitable funds ...	6	...	...	...	6
Societies of mutual insurance against accidents during work	10	3	...	...	13
Societies of insurance against mortality among cattle ...	5	...	...	13	18
Fire insurance societies ...	4	...	...	...	4
Hail insurance societies ...	...	...	...	2	2
Co-operative societies of articles of consumption ...	2	17	1	7	27
Co-operative societies for pro- duction ...	1	13	...	1	15
Professional schools ...	12	3	1	...	16
Professional classes and con- ferences ...	34	47	4	17	102
Professional competitions ...	2	1	1	...	4
Apprentices' protection societies	3	...	...	...	3
Orphanages ...	1	...	...	...	1
Commercial and industrial museums and collections of patterns ...	5	...	2	...	7
Syndical exhibitions ...	1	...	...	1	2
Workshops ...	...	1	...	...	1
Libraries ...	68	300	8	16	282
Registry offices ...	51	144	21	6	222
Commercial information offices...	1	...	...	...	1
Analytical laboratories ...	8	...	...	6	14
Disputed claims offices ...	19	1	1	...	22
Councils of arbitration ...	4	1	...	1	6
Medical service—clinics ...	3	2	...	...	5
Veterinary service ...	...	...	...	1	1
Grounds and spaces for ex- periments ...	1	...	...	23	24
Agricultural nurseries ...	...	...	...	8	8
Various publications, journals, annuals, &c. ...	88	16	2	52	157

(See table facing.)

SYNDICAL CHAMBER OF WORKING MEN.

ARTICLES OF ASSOCIATION adopted at the meeting of 189

Chap. I.—Of Title and Formation.

Art. I.—A society is formed among the members of the Corporation of Working to be called the Syndical Chamber of Working

Art. II.—The duration of this society and the numbers of its members shall be unlimited.

Chap. II.—Objects of the Syndical Chamber.

Art. III.—The objects of the Syndical Chamber is to do all in its power to procure work for its members.

Art. IV.—To obtain for its members a higher rate of pay, a reduction in the hours of labour, and the possibility of more freely discussing its conditions and terms.

Art. V.—To assist in obtaining the above results the syndicate shall grant an indemnity to workmen who have been discharged by reason of disputes arising from their opposition to excessive reduction of pay per day or hour or in the sum paid for the job, and when it has been proved that at the rate offered a sufficient amount of wages would not be received.

Chap. III.—Of Admissions and Expulsions.

Art. VI.—In order to become a member of the syndicate the candidate must prove that he is a workman, and must be proposed by two members.

Art. VII.—All working men and women may belong to the Syndical Chamber whatever may be their age and nationality.

Art. VIII.—On being admitted each new member shall pay and shall receive a personal certificate book containing the articles of association of the syndicate.

Art. IX.—The proposal to admit a member shall be made to the Syndical Council and be submitted for approval at the next general meeting.

Admission shall date from the time the proposal is accepted.

Art. X.—The new member shall regularly pay his subscription, and, from and after the commencement of the quarter during which he was admitted, shall enjoy all the rights and privileges of the other members, being liable to all the burdens they may have to bear.

Art. XI.—Every new candidate who has been refused by the Council may inquire the reason and appeal to the next meeting.

Art. XII.—As all members have equal rights and duties no honorary members can be admitted.

Art. XIII.—Every member should take interest in, and look after the sanitary condition of the workshops and the application of the law with regard to apprentices.

Art. XIV.—All members who become employers cease to be members of the Syndical Chamber, and are bound to resign forthwith.

All members of the Syndical Chamber who become heads of departments or overlookers in workshops shall be considered as representatives of their employers, by reason of which they lose their right to continue to be members of the Syndical Chamber.

Art. XV.—Every member has the right to withdraw or resign temporarily or altogether.

The sums paid by him belong to the social fund.

All task masters and contractors whose object is to make profit out of their fellows shall be excluded.

APPENDIX C.

EXTRACT FROM THE REPORT ON REGISTRY OFFICES DRAWN UP BY
THE HIGHER COUNCIL OF LABOUR.

I.—Prior to 1789 registry offices were few in number, nevertheless, about 1670 a certain Theophraste Renaudot established an agency. A hairdressers' registry office also existed before the Revolution.

By a Decree of March 2, 1791, corporations, guilds, and wardenships were suppressed, and the freedom of trades proclaimed. From this period registry offices were established by degrees in the chief towns and became the intermediary between employers and workmen.

In 1848 the complaints of the labouring classes became so frequent that the Provisional Government considered it necessary to suppress registry offices, but this suppression does not appear to have produced satisfactory results for the system was carried on clandestinely, and three years later it was proposed to re-establish them.

Since 1851 a commission has been instituted at the Ministry of Commerce with the object of examining the question, and in consequence of the report of the commission the Decree of March 25, 1852, was issued.

This Decree stipulated that in future no one should carry on a registry office under any title or for any trade, occupation, or employment whatever without special authorisation given by the municipal authorities which could only be granted to persons of well-known morality, and that the municipal authorities should survey the registry offices so as to ensure the maintenance of order and just management.

II.—At present all registry offices must be previously authorised by the Prefects or the Prefecture of Police, which gives them a sort of administrative investiture.

The authorisation is only granted after careful enquiry. It is strictly personal and those who obtain it cannot transfer it to a purchaser of their agency without another administrative enquiry being made and a fresh authorisation being granted.

The Decree of 1852 was carried out without serious practical difficulty until 1875. Since that period the complaints of workmen have never ceased. A league for the suppression of registry offices has even been organised and several propositions of law have been laid before the Chamber. They have been examined by a commission which on July 11, 1889, submitted a report.

It is indispensable to analyse these parliamentary documents.

The first proposition was made by M. Camelinat, its object being to immediately suppress all registry offices and to replace

them by the Labour Exchange, Syndical Chambers of Workmen, or Municipal Labour Offices.

A second proposition, submitted by Messrs. Mesureur and Millerand, only left to the present registry offices a provisional existence until the time came when employment should be provided gratis by a Municipal Office or Labour Exchange.

The number of these registry offices has scarcely varied in Paris, at least—since 1886. For a long time past they number about 350.

The agents dispose of their offices for relatively high prices, they present their successors to the Prefecture of Police, and do not appear to doubt for a moment but that they would have a right to compensation if they were deprived of their authorisation without some reason.

In reviewing the various proposals for replacing registry offices, the report of the Superior Council of Labour states that in 1886 they procured in the Department of the Seine employment for more than 487,000 persons, and the Commission expressed the conviction that the suppression of registry offices would bring about, as in 1848, such a disturbance that it would be necessary to hasten their re-establishment.

Labour exchanges are not yet sufficiently organised, they only exist in very few towns, and a more complete development of these associations, must be attained before being able to count upon them and to substitute them for registry offices.

As regards the possibility of imposing upon municipalities the obligation of founding, or granting subventions to labour offices, such a system has been tried in certain districts at different periods, and certain municipalities have set up registry offices in the town halls, which appear, however, to more particularly relate to the hire of domestic servants.

But it is generally admitted that offices of this kind managed by an employé of the municipality present certain inconveniences for workmen. The applications are entered in the order they are made, when a master presents himself with offers of employment the employé consults his register and follows the chronological order, without any knowledge of the value of the work such or such a workman is capable of performing.

The report goes on to say that it would be impossible to force the municipalities to furnish workmen's associations with accommodation for labour offices, and the commission is of opinion that the State itself should intervene and encourage by all the means at its disposal gratuitous providing of employment by means of professional syndicates.

The Law of March 21, 1884, contains in Arts. V. and VI. the germ of the measure it suggests should be adopted:—

"The syndicates may freely institute and direct information offices for the demand and supply of labour."—Art. VI., sec. 4.

And Art. V. enacts that—

"They may freely take into consideration and defend their economical, industrial, commercial, and agricultural interests."

Now the end to attain is precisely to facilitate and encourage an understanding of this kind among the syndicates.

Syndicates of employers should concert with those of workmen to ensure employment on freely discussed terms of pay.

There is an example at Paris of such an understanding which produces an excellent effect. By reason of this measure, in existence since three years, the Syndical Chamber of Master Butchers seeks for nearly all the men required at the Syndical Chamber established at the Labour Exchange, and the statistics of 1888, 1889, and 1890 show the practical utility of the measure.

In 1889, notably, the number of butchers' assistants provided with employment by the syndicate exceeded 4,000 (it is true this was during the Exhibition year). In 1890 the number was 3,031, and it is easy to calculate the real economy realised in favour of butchers' assistants.

Admitting that every man provided with employment had paid the syndical subscription of 6 fr. per annum, these 3,031 men obtained employment during the year by paying a sum of 18,186 fr.

The average fee exacted by registry offices would have been at least 15 fr. per head, *i.e.*, a total amount of 45,465 fr. paid to the offices; the economy in favour of the men is, therefore, 27,279 fr.

In conclusion, the commission recommends that a credit should be inserted in the Budget for the purpose of assisting all those syndicates which follow the example of the butchers of Paris.

Such credit would be placed at the disposal of the Prefects in those Departments where it would be possible to make use of it. These officials would not be partners, in the name of the State, in labour offices; they would only intervene when the offices were organised by consent of both masters and men. They would take into account the results already obtained and those likely to follow, and would pay to professional syndicates of workmen such indemnities as they considered sufficient.

LABOUR Registry Offices in Paris.

Trades.	Tariff.	Number of Offices in Paris.
Butchers' shopmen ..	Half of the first week's wages	8
Bakers	Fixed employment 10 fr., day labour, 50 c. per day till the fifteenth day, when the engagement is considered definite. .	9
Hairdressers	On monthly wages of 30 fr., 3 fr. If the wages are higher, 5 fr. If paid daily, 50 c. per day for two days ..	3
Dealers in comestibles, milk, butter, and cheese.. ..	3 per cent. of the annual wages, and 25 c. per day extra	2
Grocers	Employer pays 10 fr. per annum to the office; the employé pays nothing ..	3
Hotel waiters	One-fifth of the monthly wages esti- mated by the employer, not to exceed in any case 20 fr. (fixed by the Prefect of Police)	10
Café waiters	15 per cent. of the wages as estimated by the employer, 50 c. per day ..	19
Retail wine-shop waiters	1 fr. 50 c. per 10 fr. On annual wages, 50 c. per day	11
Millers	3 per cent. and 6 per cent. of annual wages	2
Cowkeepers, stablemen	One-fifth of monthly wages	1
Pastrycooks	One-fifth of monthly wages, 25 fr. maximum	2
Shoemakers	1 fr., 2 fr., or 3 fr., according to wages	1
Dyers	2 fr. for situation in Paris. 5 fr. for situation in provinces	3
Clerks and commercial assistants	3 per cent. of the salary when not annual nor boarded and lodged. 5 per cent. when boarded and lodged ..	5 16
Education. — Tutors, teachers, governesses	5 per cent. of annual salary	
Domestic servants ..	3 per cent. of annual wages	229

The rate is about the same in other towns in France, both as regards trades and fees.

There are 320 registry offices in Paris, and the same proportion in the provincial towns.

(For Appendix D see table facing.)

RECAPITULATION.

	1890.	1891.	Total for 1890-91.	Comparative Excess of 1891 over 1890.
Names entered..	29,274	37,142	66,416	7,868
Fixed employment ..	22,176	29,407	51,583	7,231
Extra hands ..	2,749	2,814	5,563	65
Total ..	..	..	123,562	..

---If the fee of 10 fr. per situation obtained be taken as the average at present charged at registry offices, it will be seen that Parisian workmen have saved 517,150 fr. In this sum those employed as extra hands are not taken into account.

NUMBER of Workmen Placed by Labour

(Extract from "Annuaire," 1891.)

Number.	Corporations.	1890.			1891.			Observations.	Number.	Corporations.
		Names Entered.	Situations Provided.	Extra Hands.	Names Entered.	Situations Provided.	Extra Hands.			
1	Jewellery and allied trades	80	75	..	92	80	..	We have organised a new system for providing employment which will allow us to place a greater number of the members of our syndicate	35	Brought for Letterpress printers
2	Imitation jewellery	35	22	..	19	18	..		36	Gardeners ..
3	Jewels and jewellery	84	82	..	98	96	..		37	Lithographers ..
4	Hosiery	20	19	..	21	17	..		38	Restaurant keepers and wine dealers
5	Butchers	8,912	6,896	..	12,042	9,908	..		39	Engineers (unemployed)
6	Bakers	1,156	1,169	203	2,405	2,220	298	Several situations as "extra hands" have not been cancelled in the registers, the situation as "extra" being merely occasional	40	" (moulders)
7	Stokers and guards	120	90	..	53	44	..		41	Iron caseworkers
8	Carpenters — ("solidarity")	121	120	..	115	111	..		42	Joiners, C.S.
9	Iron girders, &c. ..	16	14	..	15	15	..		43	Syndical union joiners
10	Cooks	1,572	879	998	1,608	993	1,105		44	Electric fitters
11	Iron pot and boiler makers	402	301	..	380	253	..	These are the figures for the last four months of the year, the statistics were previously given to the Municipal Council	45	Shoing smiths
12	Bookkeepers ..	65	63	..	48	47	..		46	Numerical printers
13	Shirt cutters ..	212	203	..	218	216	..		47	Goldsmiths
14	Cutters and stitchers	140	138	..	246	235	..		48	Clockmakers
15	Barbers	..	..	..	3,562	2,385	..		49	House painters
16	Coppersmiths ..	645	532	..	432	421	..	On account of difficulties arising with regard to permanent attendance, the providing of employment has been very restricted	50	Paper stainers
17	"Shoemakers of France"	703	629	..	307	201	..		51	"French painters
18	Shoemaking federation	..	1	..	..	12	..		52	Letter painters
19	Louis XV heel makers	101	65	..	183	103	..		53	Trimming makers (by hand)
20	Shoemakers, C.S. ..	..	..	..	92	47	..		54	Photo engravers
21	Sewing hands ..	62	46	..	78	62	..	At present the three groups of the shoe trade have amalgamated in one Syndical Chamber	55	Pastry cooks
22	Women's corporation	1,544	1,133	..	1,711	1,207	..		56	Account rulers
23	Chromo designers	60	56	..	75	70	..		57	Newspaper printers and employees
24	Gilders (wood) ..	4	1	..	..	..	..		59	Wood band makers
25	Gilders (leather) ..	10	6	..	9	8	..		60	Locksmiths (finishers)
26	Clerks and trade assistants	562	442	..	530	491	..	These situations relate to different corporations, especially of labourers, but connected with metallurgy	61	Setters of jewelry
27	Federation of Metallurgy	..	..	..	107	102	..		62	Hand and tooling bag makers
28	Blacksmiths ..	171	149	..	146	102	..		63	Upholsterers (women)
29	Locksmiths ..	20	18	..	22	15	..		64	Upholsterers
30	Purse and portemonnaie fasteners	..	..	..	..	2	..		65	Tap turners
31	Tinplate workers ..	80	75	..	73	68	..	These situations relate to different corporations, especially of labourers, but connected with metallurgy	66	Navvies ..
32	Hotel waiters ..	996	918	82	1,083	963	97		67	Cleaners, C.S.
33	Engravers' federation	70	67	..	43	43	..		68	Dyers ..
34	Copper plate printers	120	115	..	129	121	..		69	Commercial rollers
	Carried forward	18,083	14,314	1,283	25,892	20,676	1,500		70	Blanket and terpane weavers
										Total ..

exchange.

	1890.			1891.			Observations.
	Names Entered.	Situations Provided.	Extra Hands.	Names Entered.	Situations Provided.	Extra Hands.	
ard	18,083	14,314	1,283	25,892	20,676	1,500	
ters	152	149	..	161	160	..	
..	13	12	..	14	14	..	
ede-	162	154	..	180	172	..	
bers	2,612	562	1,304	2,080	766	1,202	
ers	1,293	1,283	..	1,401	1,336	..	
(on)	30	22	..	32	31	..	
ng	..	2	..	10	5	..	
..	107	102	..	101	72	..	
of	30	27	..	43	38	..	
..	119	112	..	131	132	..	
..	351	320	..	447	412	..	
ters	31	26	..	31	31	..	
..	13	12	..	..	..	..	
..	..	..	..	..	3	..	
..	419	352	..	603	580	..	During several months in 1891 there were very few unemployed
..	20	20	..	22	21	..	
ers"	309	222	..	231	236	..	
..	184	118	..	152	142	..	
ers	..	2	..	..	5	..	
kers	18	21	..	22	23	..	
s ..	62	53	..	53	42	..	
..	2,307	1,952	162	2,640	1,958	112	
per	190	154	..	161	139	..	
ters	207	120	..	190	183	..	A great number of the members found employment through their comrades without having to apply to the office of the syndicate where their exact number is unknown
ter	..	..	..	32	32	..	
hs	470	320	..	515	393	..	
ls ..	..	..	..	..	12	..	
vel-	15	15	..	20	20	..	
ers	..	..	..	..	15	..	
men)	62	41	..	70	53	..	
..	342	259	..	311	267	..	
..	393	225	..	192	141	..	Our Syndical Chamber, heavily burdened as it is, has fresh adherents daily. We shall soon be able to provide employment regularly
..	..	..	..	67	32	..	
..	120	93	..	47	27	..	
avel-	1,160	1,112	..	1,341	1,226	..	
oun-	..	..	..	..	2	..	
ers	..	..	..	..	..	..	
..	29,274	22,176	2,749	37,142	29,407	2,814	

APPENDIX E.

REGULATIONS OF THE CENTRAL LABOUR EXCHANGE (BOURSE DU TRAVAIL) AND ITS DEPENDENCIES.

*(Definitely Adopted.)**Chapter I.—Constitution of the Labour Exchange.*

Art. I.—The labour exchange is a municipal institution.

Art. II.—The central labour exchange and its dependencies are managed by the syndical chambers and corporations exclusively composed of paid employés.

Art. III.—The central exchange and its dependencies comprise offices for syndical chambers, workmen's societies, and corporations associated with the exchange; and rooms for their special and general meetings. Rooms are reserved for professional classes and those relating to social science, rules for the internal government of which are to be provided.

Art. IV.—The labour exchange shall be open every day, Sundays and holidays included, from 6 A.M. till midnight.

Syndical chambers, corporations, and workmen's societies, the offices of which are situate at the exchange, cannot require from their employés more than eight hours duty per diem, to be distributed according to circumstances.

Art. V.—Syndical chambers, corporations, and workmen's societies, the offices of which are situate in the department of the Seine, may appoint delegates to constitute the general committee.

Chapter II.—Of the General Committee.

Art. VI.—The general committee possesses the most extended powers with regard to the use of the central exchange and its dependencies.

It pronounces finally on all questions laid before it

Art. VII.—Ordinary meetings of the committee shall be held on the second Monday of every month and extraordinary meetings whenever convened by the executive committee or the committee of control mentioned below.

Art. VIII.—The general committee has sole power to decide the admission or expulsion of syndicates and corporations

in accordance with the report of the executive committee, and to define the duties of the committees with regard to the establishment of offices.

Art. IX.—The general committee may be subdivided into as many committees or sub-committees as it shall deem necessary for the consideration of economical and corporate questions.

Such committees or sub-committees have no executive character.

Art. X.—The general committee shall elect among its members a committee for the execution of its decisions composed of 31 members to be called the executive committee.

Chapter III.—Of the Executive Committee.

Art. XI.—The executive committee is elected for one year by ballot, on the absolute majority at first obtained, and shall be renewed by moiety every 6 months.

Its members may be revoked at any time and are only re-eligible one year after the expiration of their term of office.

Lots shall be drawn for the members who have to retire the first year.

In case of vacancies occurring by the death, expulsion, or resignation of members they shall be filled up by elections, to take place at the first meeting held after such vacancy occurs.

Every member who resigns or has been expelled shall immediately cease to act.

Art. XII.—In case of the collective resignation of the members of the executive committee or of the partial resignation of one-half plus one of their number, the committee shall continue in office until the decision of the general committee (which shall be convened within the shortest possible delay by the committee of control) has been given.

Art. XIII.—The executive committee is charged with the execution of the decisions of the general committee.

It pronounces provisionally on all urgent questions concerning the regulations or the general services of the labour exchange.

It prepares the budget of the exchange to be laid before the general committee and then before the municipal council.

It keeps the premises of which it has the charge in proper order and repair.

It shall take all such urgent measures as it may consider necessary in the interest of the labour exchange, but on condition of obtaining the approval of the general committee at its next ensuing meeting.

It shall cause a monthly account of receipt and expenditure to be prepared, and shall submit the same to the general committee, together with a report upon the administrative services of the central exchange and its dependencies.

All propositions and demands made to the executive committee by syndicates, corporations, and workmen's societies are to be duly

considered and communicated, or reported to the next ensuing meeting of the general committee.

Art. XIV.—The executive committee has under its direction the whole of the administrative and working staff of the labour exchange and its dependencies.

Art. XV.—It corresponds with the municipal council in the name of the labour exchange on all questions relating to the administrative management of the exchange and its dependencies.

Art. XVI.—The executive committee may be subdivided into as many permanent or temporary sub-committees as shall be deemed necessary for the due examination of questions submitted to it.

Art. XVII.—The members of the executive committee, sub-committees, and the commissions of the general committee are remunerated at the rate of 1 fr. per hour.

All delegations emanating from the general or executive committees are remunerated at the same rate.

Art. XVIII.—The executive committee shall furnish every month a table of labour statistics, the elements for which shall be provided by the associate syndicates of the labour exchange.

Chapter IV.—Of Administration.

Art. XIX.—In order to ensure the regular working of the exchange, the general committee shall select from among the delegates of the syndical chambers exclusively, five secretaries, who shall be attached to the various departments, a treasurer, a librarian, and his assistant.

The duties of these officers are incompatible with those of members of the executive committee or the committee of control.

They are to be renewed every year, and may be revoked at any time; they are re-eligible two years in succession.

The secretaries act by rotation as secretaries to the meetings of the executive and general committees.

They are required to furnish detailed monthly reports of the work of the labour exchange and its dependencies, and of all the incidents which compose the history of the institution.

These documents are to be laid before the executive and general committees, and shall be classified for the purpose of forming the contents of the report to be published at the end of the year.

Chapter V.—Of the Various Departments.

Section I.—Finances.

Art. XX.—The duties of the finance department are entrusted to a treasurer, who shall manage this department in concert with the sub-committee of finances under the responsibility of the executive committee.

The finance committee is required to keep the account, and is held responsible for all documents relating thereto.

A special regulation relating to the keeping of accounts shall define the manner in which the treasurer is to account for the receipts and expenditure, the banking of cash, and the amount retained in his possession.

Section II.—Archives—Library.

Art. XXI.—The library and archives department is entrusted to the librarian and his assistant, under the control of the executive committee. The librarians are responsible for the volumes contained in the library, and shall keep a register of the objects in their custody and report every month to the executive committee the state and requirements of the library.

This report shall appear in the gazette of the exchange.

The reading room shall be open from 8 A.M. to 10 P.M.

The library shall be accessible to all the associate syndicates of the labour exchange, and a lending library shall be provided gratis for all syndicates on presentation of a letter bearing the seal of the syndicate and signed by its secretary.

Section III.—Gazette.

Art. XXII.—This department is entrusted to a staff of editors to be chosen from among the members of the executive committee. A secretary appointed by the committee shall classify all communications relative to the gazette and shall see to the correction thereof, as well as of all the matter intended to be published.

The editorial staff shall collect all the documents required for the contents of the volume to be published at the end of the year, and shall prepare for the printing thereof in concert with the executive committee.

Section IV.—Guardians—Inspectors.

Art. XXIII.—In order to provide the staff of inspectors for the labour exchange the syndical chambers, corporations, or workmen's societies may present candidates, and should point out the services rendered to their corporation, in a syndical sense, by such candidates.

Guardians and inspectors are to be elected for a term of two years, at the expiration of which they may be presented for re-election.

The revocation of any of these officers can only be pronounced by the general committee, and this only in case grave motives exist for such a measure.

The executive committee by a vote of one-half plus one of its effective members may order the temporary suspension of an

officer, but shall forthwith notify the case to the syndicate specially concerned.

Chapter VI.—Of the Committee of Control.

Art. XXIV.—In order to ensure the due execution of the present regulations the general committee shall choose from among its members a committee of control composed of 12 members, renewable by sixths and in rotation every month.

This committee has the control of all the acts of the executive committee, those of the responsible officers, and the finances of the labour exchange.

It shall meet in the evening for the performance of its duties as often as may be necessary.

It shall delegate three of its members to attend the meetings of the executive committee.

Its official report shall be issued one week prior to the meetings of the general committee.

The members of the committee of control shall be remunerated on the same scale as the members of other committees.

BUDGET of the Central Labour Exchange and its Dependencies.

Article.	Description.	Currency.
		Fr.
CHAP. I.—ADMINISTRATION.		
I.	5 secretaries, 52 weeks at 48 fr. per week	12,480
	1 treasurer	2,496
	1 librarian and his assistant	5,110
II.	Executive committee—	
	31 members and 3 delegates of the committee of control. Attendance fees at 1 fr. per hour; average attendance of 3 hours at each meeting ..	5,304
	5 sub-committees of the executive committee, 4 of 6 members, and 1 of 7 members. 52 meetings per annum	4,836
	Sub-committees of the general committee	14,400
	Committee of control—	
	12 members; 52 meetings per annum	1,872
III.	Evening attendances—	
	Central exchange and dependencies, 365 days, at 2 fr. per day	1,460
	Sunday attendances—	
	Central exchange and dependency "A"	832
IV.	Propagation committee—	
	Correspondence with syndical chambers, delivery of circulars; congresses, exhibitions, &c.	1,500
V.	Committee of administration—	
	Delegations, correspondence, enquiries	1,000
VI.	Office expenses	19,000
CHAP. II.—SUNDRIES.		
VII.	Cost of printing the annual	4,000
VIII.	Translations; 4 translators	2,400
IX.	Purchase of newspapers, reviews, pamphlets, &c. ..	1,500
X.	Purchase and keeping in order of books, bookbinding, printing, &c.	5,000
XI.	Printing of a bi-weekly gazette, at 150 fr. each number ..	15,600
XII.	30 permanent employés, 52 weeks, at 48 fr. per week ..	74,800
XIII.	12 guardian-inspectors, 52 weeks, at 48 fr. per week ..	29,952
	Total expenses	203,542
	Receipts from sale of gazette	1,200
	Total	202,342

RECAPITULATION.

(8289)

Chapters.	Class of Expenses.	Sums Provided for.	Sums expended from—			Total Expenses.	Difference.		Observations.
			January 26 to June 22.	June 23 to July 30.	July 31 to December 31.		More.	Less.	
		Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	
1	Administration	7,341	3,127 00	738 00	3,126 00	6,991 00	..	350 00	
2	Office expenses	1,600	351 05	62 96	795 69	1,209 66	..	390 34	
3	The "Bulletin de la Bourse"	7,411	..	..	..	7,456 07	45 07	..	
4	Sub-Committee of Administration	862	710 60	47 00	377 50	1,135 10	273 10	..	
5	Sub-Committee of Propaganda	1,210	645 25	162 20	527 80	1,335 25	125 25	..	
6	" " Statistics	310	11 00	..	72 00	88 00	..	227 00	
7	" " Finances	356	130 00	..	157 00	287 00	..	69 00	
8	Commission of the General Committee	400	..	..	112 00	112 00	..	288 00	
9	Plant	200	72 20	98 30	105 40	275 90	75 90	..	
10	Library	150	83 60	200 00	185 00	468 60	318 60	..	
11	Sundry commissions	..	..	..	..	261 45	261 45	..	
12	The Annual	20	..	..	..	24 45	4 45	..	
13	Supplementary work	..	..	..	..	1,111 00	1,111 00	..	
14	Sundries	140	..	..	..	303 90	163 90	..	
	Total	20,000	..	..	..	21,054 38	2,378 72	1,324 34	Excess not provided for— 1,054 fr. 38 c.

B 4

BALANCE Sheet of Budget.

	Fr.	c.
Receipts—		
Municipal subvention.. .. .	20,000	00
Produce of sale and subscription to the "Bulletin Officiel de la Bourse"	1,071	55
Repayment of loan to the Corporate Group of the district of St. Denis	30	00
Amount of Regnier's account carried to expenses in 1890, but not then paid	385	00
Partial repayment of loan to metallic cement layers	20	00
Total	21,506	55
Expenses—		
Annual expenditure	21,054	38
Loss on receipt of the subvention by twelfths	0	20
Total	21,054	58
Balance—		
In hand January 1, 1891	1,599	09
Municipal subvention	20,000	00
Sundry receipts	1,506	55
Total	23,105	64
Expenses	21,054	58
In hand December 31, 1891	2,051	06

LABOUR EXCHANGE OF PARIS.

Commission of Statistics.

Comrade,

In the interest of the working classes and of the Labour Exchange the Commission of Statistics wishes to possess various information, and hopes it may not meet with any difficulty in obtaining from you whatever particulars you may be able to furnish.

Acting upon this hope the commission has the honour to beg you to be good enough to reply to the following questions:—

Counting upon your mutual assistance we beg you to accept our fraternal salutation.

(Signed) Delegate of the Women's Syndicate,

Delegate of the Carpenters' Union,

Delegate of House Painters,

Delegate of Fancy Paper-Makers.

1. When was your syndicate instituted? Where is its office?
2. Was it instituted after a strike or at an ordinary period?
3. What changes have been made?
4. How many men, women, and children, apprentices or others, are employed in your trade?
5. What are the hours of labour? Have you days of rest?
6. What wages do you earn and are you paid weekly, fortnightly, or monthly? Are you paid in current coin or by tokens?
7. Have you slack seasons? and at what time of the year? Of what duration?
8. Have you had strikes and what has been the result?
9. Have you a set of workshop rules? What is their nature?
10. Is your trade a dangerous one? In what way?
11. Have you professional classes? Are they subventioned?
12. Have you insurance societies against accidents in your trade?

Replies to the above questions should be sent to the Commission of Statistics, Labour Exchange, Paris.

EXTRACT FROM THE REPORT OF THE "BOURSE DU TRAVAIL."

Besides the Labour Exchanges, important groups of workmen have been founded in several departments under the title of "workmen's federations" and "unions of syndicates" and corporate bodies.

First is that of the "Federation of Workmen of the Ardennes" at Charleville (Ardennes), founded in 1889. The centre is at Charleville, but its influence and action extends all over the region. This federation comprises about 50 or 60 Syndical Chambers or Corporations—metallurgy, 30 sections; building, 5 sections; brushmakers, glassmakers, and slate cutters, 12 sections; and textile fabrics, 8 sections. It owns a paper, entitled "The Emancipation."

Allier.—At Montluçon exists the Union of Workmen's Syndical Chambers (1890), the centre of which is at Rue Damiette, Montluçon. It comprises among the associate syndicates metallurgy, bakery, and trades connected with same, shoemakers and the like, wigmakers, hairdressers, and glass-makers.

Bouches-du-Rhône.—The Labour Exchange at Marseilles, with its union of 70 syndicates, the centre of which is at the Labour Exchange, is highly federated. At Aix is the "Union of the Syndical Chambers of Aix" (1889), the office of which is at 34, Cours Sextius, Aix. This union comprises the federation of the Workmen's Syndical Chambers of bakers, stone-cutters, type printers, hatters, fullers, and masons. A library is organised at

headquarters containing treatises on social economy, technical and professional education, &c.

Charente.—At Châteauneuf exists the "Union of Workmen's Syndical Chambers of Cognac and Châteauneuf," founded in 1886. The centre is at Châteauneuf.

Cher.—Vierzon is the centre of the federation of the Syndical Chambers of the region, the office being situated at Vierzon-Ville. This federation comprises the union of the Syndical Chambers of porcelain makers, metallurgists, navvies, and glass makers.

Côte d'Or.—At Dijon exists the "Workmen's Federation of Dijon and the Côte d'Or," founded in 1890.

Loire Inférieure.—At Nantes the union of the Syndical Chambers was founded in 1852, the centre being at 4, Rue Bactérie. This federation comprises 15 Syndical Chambers of working engineers (fitters and turners), coppersmiths, masons, coachbuilders, moulders, and founders of iron and copper, hatters, blacksmiths, tanners, curriers and leather dressers, saddlers, harness makers, coopers, shoemakers, and hairdressers.

Loiret.—At Orleans the "Federation of Workmen's Syndicates of Orleans" was founded in 1888. The centre is at the "Maison d'Agnes Sorel," Rue du Puits-Landean, Orleans. It comprises five Chambers, viz., joiners, letter-press printers, tailors, carpenters, and masons.

Maine-et-Loire.—At Cholet, independently of the Labour Exchange, there exists a powerful federation, entitled the "Union of Professional Syndicates of Working Spinners of Cholet," founded in 1888. The centre is at 9, Rue de Pineau, Cholet, and nine Syndical Chambers form the union.

Nord.—At Hautmont exists the "Union of Economical Syndicates of the District of Maubeuge," founded in 1889. Its centre is at the Hôtel de France, Place Ste. Anne, Hautmont. It consists of three Syndical Chambers, viz., the iron trade, chemical products, and engineering trades. There is a library for the use of the members.

Pas de Calais.—At Boulogne-sur-Mer exists the "Union of the Syndical Chambers of Boulogne-sur-Mer," founded in 1889. The centre is at the Fishmarket, Boulogne. It consists of five Syndical Chambers—metallurgists, joiners, coopers, ships'-carpenters, and contractors.

At Calais the "Union of Workmen's Syndical Chambers" was founded in 1890; its office is at 35, Rue du Four-à-Chaux, Calais. It consists of four Syndical Chambers—tulle-makers and trades connected therewith (members of the "Alliance Syndicale"), a like syndicate (members of the "Union Française"), metallurgists and joiners.

Rhône.—In the department of the Rhône, besides the Labour Exchange, there exists at Givors the "Federation of the Professional Syndicates and Corporate Groups of the District of Givors," founded in 1891. Its centre is at the Town Hall of Givors, and consists of three Syndical Chambers of hatters, metallurgists, and basket makers.

Seine.—Besides the Labour Exchange, there are several trade federations—

The “French Federation of Workmen in the Book Trade,” offices, 15, Rue de Savoie, and No. 11 of the Labour Exchange. Its journal is entitled “La Typographie Française.”

The “Metallurgists’ Federation,” composed of 37 syndicates; office at the Labour Exchange; journal, entitled “La Fédération Métallurgiste.”

The “Société Générale of Working Hatters of France,” 1884; office, 25, Rue des Rosiers; journal, “L’Ouvrier Chapelier.”

The “Syndical Union of Silk Hat Makers of France,” 1891; office, 6, Rue des Archives; consisting of the four Syndical Chambers of Paris, Rheims, Essonne, and Argenteuil.

The “Federation of Men and Women Employed in the Tobacco Factories of France,” 1890 (office at the Labour Exchange), is composed of the 18 Syndical Chambers of Paris (Gros-Cailou), Paris (Reuilly), Pantin, Lyons, Marseilles, Nice, Nancy, Lille, Dijon, Châteauroux, Havre, Morlaix, Nantes, Le Mans, Toulouse, Bordeaux, Tonneins, and Douai.

The “Union of the Workmen’s Syndical Chambers of France,” founded in 1880 (office 18, Rue Cadet), is composed of 30 Syndical Chambers.

Tarn.—At Graulhet exists the “Union of Workmen’s Syndicates of Graulhet,” founded in 1884, centre, Place de la Halle, Graulhet. This federation is composed of four Syndical Chambers of working leather and hide dressers, hatters, builders’ workmen, and morocco leather dressers. A library has been formed for lending professional books to the syndicated members.

APPENDIX F.

EXTRACT FROM THE "ANNUAIRE DE LA BOURSE DU TRAVAIL."

"La Trôle."

The popular movement set on foot against "la Trôle" in the Faubourg St. Antoine continues and increases day by day. Working cabinet-makers at present protest loudly against this market, where small employers sell, at the cheapest rate, furniture, more or less badly made, to wholesale dealers.

This is, according to the workman, a certain cause of the lowering of wages and the ruin of independent workmen.

At present two leagues are formed—one for the entire abolition of this market; the other for the maintenance of absolute liberty of labour and the institution of a market intended to receive the furniture made by all who work on the chance of disposing of their goods.

These two leagues act, recruit adherents, insert protestations in the papers, and petition the Municipal Council each one for the interests of its own cause.

"La Trôle" is now an open market held in the Avenue Ledru Rollin on Saturdays from 2 to 7 o'clock.

Nothing more curious than this weekly market is to be seen. Early in the morning the "trôleurs" arrive; the first comers take immediate possession of the best places and offer their goods to the buyer. The market is at present stocked with a quantity of small "marqueterie" tables, this being the season when the largest number of such articles is sold.

But what is really this "trôle," this market? and what is its origin? To "trôle," dictionaries tell us, is to perambulate, lead, go to and fro; in the cabinet-making trade it means to go from one dealer to another with furniture for sale. This is the general definition, but practically "la trôle" does not only consist of this mode of trading; it takes five different forms—

(1) To offer furniture to tradesmen by means of drawings and designs (this is also called brokerage).

(2) To call on the merchant or tradesman and take them to the workshop or small warehouse where the furniture is stored before having obtained an order.

(3) To employ a commissionaire, generally styled "the auvergnat," to sell the furniture.

(4) To send the "charabanier" (or char-a-banc driver) alone or with a companion to the market.

(5) To take up a position at the junction of the Avenue Ledru Rollin and the Rue Traversière.

There is still a sixth class of "trôleur" who keep shops and snap up such buyers as may venture into the faubourg.

"Trôleurs" are mostly small cabinet-makers who employ one or two workmen to make up furniture. They buy their wood on credit, work it up rapidly, give the made-up article a few finishing touches, and dispose of it at a very low price.

By this means they cause considerable harm to conscientious workmen employed in important workshops, a harm all the greater as their wages are lowered, and their general reputation for artistic skill and honesty is injured by the clumsiness of their casual competitors.

These "trôleurs" form a separate class in the population of the faubourg. They live in common with their workmen, and these wretched creatures, who are paid very little, are narrowly watched and kept hard at work by these petty employers.

Another question occupies much attention in the faubourg, namely, the problem of work by the hour and piecework.

Piecework has not always existed for the workmen employed on the master's premises; this is an innovation which, with some few exceptions, only dates from about 30 years back in the cabinet-making trade. It has been observed that after every strike piecework increased, while work by the hour diminished. This is explained by the fact that strikes fixed a minimum of wages per hour accepted by the masters and approved by the Council of Prud'hommes (trade experts). The strikes resulted in an increase of 10 per cent. to 20 per cent. on piecework, but this latter increase was vague, and was never carried into effect, as the employer could change his designs every day or set up some other system of manufacture. The percentage, therefore, came to nothing, and the master continued to pay the wages he pleased.

It is not possible to receive payment by the hour without knowing the sum earned, but piecework can be interfered with by changes of form, new designs, tools, &c.

At first the price for piecework was calculated on the wages paid for the same kind of work by the hour. This work could be done 25 or 30 years ago on a sufficiently large scale, because there was less antagonism between capital and labour; there was then an intermediary class of petty employers who had a trade connection, but this class no longer exists. Nowadays small manufacturers work for wholesale houses or for the "trôle."

A very powerful cause of diminution of wages is the centralisation of capital in some 10 of the great firms in the faubourg. These firms only employ a very small number of workmen; all the goods ordered of them are made by the smaller makers at lower and lower prices, and these makers, if they employ workmen, are obliged to pay them sums still more inadequate. Formerly these small employers were independent, but they are now obliged to support the exigencies of the large manufacturers, who have, moreover, completely taken away their customers

At present the Faubourg St. Antoine is greatly agitated by these questions.

A powerful syndicate of working cabinet-makers has been formed for the purpose of considering these problems. Whatever may result, the furniture trade is still one of the most flourishing of all those that enrich Paris. In 1873 the export trade amounted to 4,000,000 fr., and it has never ceased increasing since that period.

APPENDIX G.

TEST CASES.

Threats of Coalition and Boycotting—Repeal of Art. 416 of the Penal Code; Inapplicability of Art. 414.

The acts heretofore punished by Art. 416 of the Penal Code constitute neither offences, nor partial offences, since the Law of March 21, 1884, relating to professional syndicates came into force.*

Mere threats of coalition and boycotting cannot be considered as constituting acts provided for, and punishable by Art. 414 of the Penal Code.

Moral pressure brought to bear upon an employer with a view to decide him to discharge a workman, when it takes place without violence or fraud, cannot be considered a fault. Therefore, a workman discharged by an employer who yields to threats of boycotting from a syndicate of workmen cannot use the fact of his having been thus discharged as a ground for demanding damages from the syndicate under Arts. 1382 and 1383 of the Civil Code.

Syndicate of Working Printers on Stuffs at Jallieu.

On the appeal against a judgment of the civil tribunal of Bourgoin, dated July 11, 1890, the Court of Grenoble pronounced the following decree:—

Order of the Court:

Whereas the facts upon which Joost grounds his action for damages against the syndicate of Jallieu are set forth in his subsidiary conclusions as to proof, and that the whole question at issue is to ascertain whether these facts present the judicial character of a fault, and, as a consequence, come within the application of Arts. 1382 and 1383 of the Civil Code.

As regards Fact No. 1:

Whereas it gives rise to dispute between parties and that it is not justified in form, but that the first judges have, with reason, declared it to be pertinent, and have upheld it as to proof; that no

* *Vide* in this sense the "Reports of the Tribunal of Lyons," May 13, 1885, p. 488.

appeal has been made by the syndicate; and that it is just to confirm on this point the judgment based upon the adoption of these motives.

As regards Fact No. 2:

Whereas this fact consists of a decision come to by the syndicate to prevent Joost, by all possible means, from working in printing establishments, and particularly in those of Jallieu, but that this decision of itself, and by itself alone, cannot be considered to constitute a grievance for Joost, the generality of its terms and default of publicity duly taken into account.

Whereas the syndicate protests against the legality of the means it was intended to employ, and that in consequence it was important to discover, among the other facts cited in proof, how the decision in question had been interpreted and executed by its authors.

As regards Facts Nos. 3, 4 and 5:

Whereas they reduce themselves to the measures taken by the syndicate with regard to Brunet-Lecomte in order to obtain, by means of intimidation, the discharge of Joost and the latter's expulsion, which would have been the result; but that these facts, supposing them to have been proved, would not have been of a character to entail the civil responsibility of the party notified, although their object would have been to induce Joost to again become a member of the syndicate from which he had withdrawn.

Whereas it is, in fact, admitted by Joost himself that the only threats to which the members of the syndicate had recourse were threats of coalition, strike, and boycotting, and that it is not stated by the appellant that these facts were accompanied by acts of violence or fraudulent manoeuvres.

Whereas, without having to discover what is the real signification of the term "threats" introduced by the Legislator of May 25, 1864, into Art. 414 of the Civil Code; that, at the very least, this expression must be understood to mean culpable measures with intent to act with violence or by fraud upon the will of the workman or that of the employer, and that mere threats of coalition or boycotting could not be thus qualified, considering that coalition and boycotting are not illicit acts.

Whereas, in fact, boycotting and the proscription of the workshop, with which the syndicate is charged, would be apt to be characterised as an attempt against the free exercise of industry and labour provided for by Art. 416 of the Penal Code; but that this article, having been expressly repealed by the Law of March 21, 1884, on professional syndicates, the facts therein considered are henceforth insufficient to constitute of themselves either a penal or a civil offence.

Whereas it appears from the debates which have been held during several years in the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate that the Legislator of 1884 has unreservedly condemned the provisions of Art. 416, as neither harmonising with the essence of the right of coalition or the principles of common law; that his intention was to entirely relieve this right of coalition of the hindrances imposed on it by the said article while maintaining the prescriptions of Arts. 414 and 415 of the Penal Code, which had, on the contrary, the effect of assuring the due observance thereof; that he would have acted contradictorily in suppressing, from a penal point of view, the special prohibitions of Art. 416, while retaining them from a civil point of view, and that he evidently referred to the provisions of Arts. 1382 and 1383 of the Civil Code for the sanction to be given to all illicit acts; finally, that the interpretation which must be given to the Law of 1884 was, in a measure, confirmed by the Chamber of Deputies in 1890, when a law was proposed the object of which was to repress attempts against the liberty of professional associations.

Whereas that if the object of the members of the syndicate of Jallieu appears to have been to decide Joost to rejoin their society, they have not in any way infringed Art. 7 of the Law of 1884; that this article simply provides "that every member of a professional syndicate may withdraw at any time from the association, notwithstanding any clause to the contrary"; that Joost had never been called upon to waive his right to benefit by this provision; that as here it only relates to a simple faculty accorded by the Law, Joost was at liberty not to avail himself of such faculty at any given date or under given circumstances; that it was the right of the syndicate to influence Joost in this sense on the sole condition of not having recourse to any culpable measures, and that the means employed did not exceed the strict right to which the syndicate was entitled since the repeal of Art. 416 of the Penal Code.

Finally, whereas the steps taken by the syndicate with regard to Lecomte, unfortunate as the result turned out, do not, under any circumstances, come within the application of Arts. 1382 and 1383 of the Civil Code; that they appear to have been determined by considerations of professional interest, and not by sentiments of hostility or malevolence towards Joost; that the right of Lecomte to discharge such or such a workman, with or without motive, has never been contested in the suit; that no rights, either conventional or legal, have been interfered with in the person of Joost; that the act of the employer with regard to him was therefore lawful, the same as the act of a syndicate would be with regard to an employer; that doubtless moral pressure existed in either instance, but that exercised by lawful means for a lawful object moral pressure does not constitute a fault; that in the absence of deception, violence, or intimidation, there can only be seen in the facts in litigation the application, in favour of a syndical association, of the principle of individual liberty, and, moreover, one of the consequences provided for by the Law of March 21, 1884.

Whereas the right claimed in an action by the members of a syndicate in virtue of the Law of 1884 bears reciprocity in favour of those who do not belong to a syndicate; that there is, therefore, nothing to prevent non-syndicated workmen obtaining from their employers the discharge of workmen who are members of a syndicate; that if experience proved that such doings were considered too improper to be tolerated, it is the legislative authority only that can put a stop thereto; that, moreover, the Chamber of Deputies has already taken a step in this direction, but in the interest of syndicates exclusively when it voted on May 13, 1890, the proposed Law above-mentioned.

Upon such motives—

Non-suits Joost upon his principal-conclusion, as being ill-founded, and without considering the points 2, 3, 4, and 5 of his subsidiary conclusions, which are rejected as being neither pertinent nor conclusive;

Confirms entirely on all points the judgment of January 11, 1890, to be executed according to its form and tenour;

In consequence, orders the application and the parties back to the Civil Tribunal of Bourgoin for the execution of the judgment.

Condemns Joost in the costs of appeal.

October 28, 1890.

Court of Grenoble.

REPEAL OF THE LAW OF 14TH-27TH JUNE, 1791, AND OF ART. 416 OF THE PENAL CODE.

Strike—Boycotting of a Commercial Establishment.

Art. I., Sec. 1, of the Law of March 21, 1884, repealed generally and absolutely the Law of 14-27 June, 1791, and Art. 416 of the Penal Code. The consequence thereof is that the fact of having devised measures in view of preparing for a strike is no longer an offence, whether as regards employers, workmen, and contractors, be they syndicated or not, and that the fines, prohibitions, prescriptions, and interdictions to that effect, which have been decided on, no longer constitute attempts to prevent the free exercise of industry and labour.

The boycotting of a commercial establishment, decided by a general meeting of workmen, merely constitutes on their part the exercise of a right, provided that they cannot be charged with any allegation likely to damage the honour or reputation of such establishment.

Syndicate of Master Muslin-Spinners of Lyons.—Judgment of the Court on the Admissibility of the Application.

Whereas it is proved by the documents produced in the suit that Rochet, Isabelle, Paray, and Morel acted as delegates of the

general meeting of master muslin-spinners, and merely executed the orders they had received from them:—

But whereas the agent who accepts and fulfils an order, the execution of which almost constitutes an offence, commits a fault for which he is personally responsible.

Whereas Art. I., Sec. 1., of the Law of March 21, 1884, repealed generally and absolutely the Law of 14–27 June, 1791, and Art. 416 of the Penal Code, that from such repeal it results that the fact of having devised measures in view of preparing a strike is no longer an offence, whether as regards employers, workmen, and contractors, be they syndicated or not, and that the fines, prohibitions, proscriptions, and interdictions to that effect, which have been decided on, no longer constitute attempts to prevent the free exercise of industry and labour.

Whereas the due exercise of a right does not constitute a fault, and does not admit of the application of Arts. 1382 and 1383 of the Civil Code, whatever may be the consequences to others of the due exercise of this right.

Whereas while receiving and executing the orders to boycott Messrs. Louis' establishment, Rochet, Isabelle, Paray, and Morel exercised a right accorded them by Law; that they did not exceed this right by announcing to the public by means of posters and by advertisements in various newspapers; that to prohibit workmen from making use of advertising as a means of making known their grievances, convoking their comrades, communicating to them the decisions come to and calling upon others to act upon such decisions after measures to that effect had been converted would be to deprive such act of boycotting of all efficacy or result, and that it is inadmissible that the legislation of March 21 could have intended to provide a useless and sterile Law.

Whereas no proof whatever is adduced by the plaintiff of any precise acts of violence, blows, threats, or fraudulent manoeuvres.

Whereas the article published in the "Petit Lyonnais" on May 7, 1884, although some of the expressions made use of by the authors are to be regretted, does not contain any statement likely to damage the honour and reputation of Messrs. Louis' establishment, who, as a motive for the boycotting thereof, are simply reproached for an act which, if it were exact, would constitute on their part nothing more than the due exercise of a right, viz., that of endeavouring to produce at the cheapest possible rate.

Upon such motives—Admits the application, and, judging thereupon, declares the application to be ill-founded.

May 13, 1885

Civil Tribunal of Lyons.

Expulsion of a Member—Interpretation of Articles of Association.

A professional syndicate constituted according to the Law of (8289)

March 21, 1884, can only exclude a member for a cause specified in its articles of association.

Therefore if such articles of association do not provide for any other causes for exclusion than sentences entailing the deprivation of civil or political rights, bankruptcy, or judicial liquidation, it is not possible to ground an exclusion upon offensive expressions applied to one of the members of the syndicate.

Syndicate of Manufacturers of Wine from Dry Raisins.

Decree.

BY THE COURT.—Whereas S—, a member of the syndicate of manufacturers of wine from dry raisins ("Fabricants de Vins de Raisins Secs de l'Est"), was excluded from the said syndicate by decision of the June 19, 1889, for having in a letter, dated the May 9 preceding, qualified as juggling, the manner in which the secretary of the syndicate had drawn up the official report of the previous meeting of the Syndical Chamber; that he demanded to be re-inscribed on the list of members, and claimed 10,000 fr. damages from the syndicate, and the insertion of the decree to be pronounced, in a certain number of journals to be selected by him.

Whereas the articles of association adopted in execution of the Law of March 21, 1884, constitutes the rules of professional syndicates, and, as regards such associations, a contract which determines in a strict and absolute manner the rights and reciprocal obligations of its members towards each other.

Whereas the articles of association of the "Syndicat des Fabricants de Vins de Raisins Secs de l'Est," does not provide for any other causes of exclusion than sentences entailing the deprivation of civil or political rights, bankruptcy, or judicial liquidation; that in consequence, by pronouncing the exclusion of S— on account of offensive expressions contained in his aforesaid letter addressed to a member of the syndicate, the meeting of the said syndicate had exceeded its powers and violated the rules of its constitution.

Whereas if it is to be regretted that the articles of association are silent with regard to the amenities due by members to each other, it is nevertheless impossible to make up for their silence, taking into consideration the special character of this association; that it must not, in fact, be overlooked that in this case it is not a question of one of those associations, the members of which have agreed to meet for the consideration of subjects derived from community of ideas, tastes, tendencies, or education, and to which members are only admitted after having been duly elected.

That on the contrary the "Syndicat des Fabricants de Vins de Raisins Secs de l'Est" had only been organised in view of the protection of commercial interests; that in this respect its founders had clearly expressed their intention when they declared by the first of their articles of association that in order to become a member of the syndicate it would be sufficient to abide by these articles and to pay the annual subscription of 50 fr.

Whereas it is not demonstrated that by the effect of the exclusion pronounced against him, S—— had suffered prejudice of any kind ; that moreover in coming to this decision the members of the syndicate present at the meeting thoroughly believed they were acting within the limit of their authority ; that in consequence there is no reason to allow S—— the damages claimed by him, nor order the insertion of the present Decree in any publication whatever ; that in this respect the re-inscription of his name on the list of the syndicate gives S—— sufficient satisfaction.

For these motives—Orders that the name of S—— be re-inscribed on the list of members of the syndicate of, &c., &c.

Court of Dijon.

July 4, 1890.

APPENDIX H.

DRAFT LAW.

Art. I.—All employers, labour contractors, and foremen who shall have been proved to have by threats or loss of employment, or deprivation of work, refusal to engage workmen or employés, or by threatening to discharge them on account of being members of a syndicate, by acts of violence and assault, gifts, offers or promises of work, obligation or hindrance to become members of professional syndicates recognised by the Law of March 21, 1884, shall be punished by imprisonment of six days to one month and a fine of 100 fr. to 2,000 fr., or by one or other of such penalties only.

Art. II.—The provisions of Art. 463 of the Penal Code are applicable to the penalties edicted by Art. I. *supra*.

Art. III.—The present Law is applicable to Algeria and the colonies of Martinique, Guadeloupe, and the island of Réunion.

APPENDIX 1.

Table 1.—STRIKES during the Year 1889.

Description of Trades.	Places.	Departments.	Dates.	Number of Days.	Number of Men on Strike.	Days of Labour Lost.	Causes of the Strikes.	Résultats.
Dressers	Roanne	Loire..	March 2-5	3	40	120	Demand for increase of wages..	Granted
"	"	"	"	3	15	45	" of labour reduction of hours	"
"	"	"	"	3	45	135	Demand for reduction of hours of labour	"
"	"	"	"	3	25	75	Do. do.	"
Slaters	Thisy	Rhône..	February 11-18	3	85	680	Reduction of wages	Compromise Granted
Jewellers	Fumay	Ardennes..	January 7-9	2	50	100	Demand for increase of wages	"
Bakers	Paris..	Seine..	July 27, 28	2	130	150	"	"
"	Avignon	Vaucluse..	September 1-8	7	18	126	"	"
"	Manesque	Basses-Alpes..	June 28, 29	2	10	20	"	"
"	Ollioules	Var ..	" 21-30	10	150	1,500	"	"
"	La Ciotat	"	" 23	8	40	320	"	"
"	Toulon	"	" 23-30	7	38	266	"	"
"	Hyères	Corse..	September 7	7	40	266	"	"
"	Bastia	"	"	7	38	266	"	"
"	Marseille	Bouches-du-Rhône	June	..	40	..	"	"
Hosters	Bienvillers	Pas-de-Calais	December 14	..	40	..	Demand for the suppression of fines	"
"	Moreuil	Somme	October 16-26	10	59	590	Reduction of wages	"
"	Troyes	Aube..	August 3-26	23	44	1,012	Demand for increase of wages	Compromise
Embroiderers	Saint-Quentin	Aisne..	Jan. 21 to Feb. 4..	14	60	840	"	"

Table 1.—STRIKES during the Year 1889—continued.

Description of Trades.	Places.	Departments.	Dates.	Number of Days.	Number of Men on Strike.	Days of Labour Lost.	Causes of the Strikes.	Results.
Cabinetmakers	Rennes	Ille-et-Vilaine	January 23	18	80	180	Reduction of wages	Negative
"	Castres	Tarn	March 6-24	19	10	180	"	Compromise
Bark-strippers	Segry	Indre	May 6-15	9	130	1,170	Demand for increase of wages	"
Military equipment.	Paris	Seine	"	"	"	"	"	"
"	"	"	May 11	4	60	240	"	Negative
"	Rennes	Ille-et-Vilaine	Aug. 31 to Sept. 2	3	100	300	Momentary organisation of labour	"
"	Bordeaux	Gironde	Aug 1-8	8	36	288	Demand for increase of wages	Compromise
"	Toulouse	Haute-Garonne	May 18 to June 5	17	50	850	Respecting fines	Negative
Porcelain-makers	Saint-Amant	Nord	January 12-14	3	15	45	Refusal to work 13 hours	"
Silk-spinners.	Saint Ambroix	Gard	June 12-13	2	150	300	Demand for increase of wages	Granted
Spinners and dressers	Thizy	Rhône	February 25	1	150	150	"	"
Cocoon-winders	Codolet	Gard	April 7 to May 2	25	25	625	"	Negative
Spinners	Tourcoing	Nord	May 17-20	3	70	210	"	Compromise
"	Rollepot	Pas-de-Calais	Nov. 28 to Dec. 5.	8	300	2,400	Reduction of wages and rough behaviour of foreman	"
Spinning mills	Thizy	Rhône	June 12	"	2,000	"	Demand for increase of wages	Negative
Spinners	Domfront	Orne	9-17	8	12	96	"	"
"	Houplines	Nord	March 11-18	7	200	1,400	"	"
"	Lille	"	" 18-20	2	60	120	"	"
"	"	"	" 13-30	18	67	1,206	"	"
"	Tourcoing	"	July 19	1	14	14	"	"

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"	"	"	"	June 29 to July 1	3	22	66	"	"	"
"	"	"	"	" 12-14	2	18	36	"	"	"
"	"	"	"	" 11-14	3	20	60	"	"	"
Cotton-spinners	"	"	Eure	" 7-13	6	22	132	"	"	"
Cocoon-winders	Nonancourt	Villeneuve-les-Avignon	Gard	September 11-30	19	80	1,520	"	"	"
Millowners	Troyes	Aube	"	December 19-21	2	36	72	Reduction of wages	"	"
Founders	Amiens	Somme	"	November 27-30	4	23	92	Discharge of hands	"	"
"	Lyons	Rhône	"	April 29	8	8	8	Request to discharge a foreman	"	"
"	Amiens	Somme	"	November 25-29	3	30	90	Reduction of wages	"	"
Smiths and line cutters	Trublain	Loire	"	October 12	1	50	50	Demand for increase of wages	Granted	
Iron and boiler founders	Paimport	Ille-et-Vilaine	"	March 13	1	13	13	Reduction of wages	Negative	
Iron and boiler founders	Chambon	Loire	"	August 21	..	24	..	Demand for increase of wages	"	
Blast furnaces, rolling mills, and foundries	Vireux-Molhain	Ardennes	"	March 13-18	5	41	205	"	"	
Letter-press printers	Amiens	Somme	"	January 8-23	15	13	195	Reduction of wages	"	
Lithographic printers	Paris	Seine	"	February	8	30	240	Relating to the application of regulations	"	
Design readers	Lyons	Rhône	"	May 13-18	5	25	125	On the subject of fines	"	
Theatre machinists	"	"	"	April 14	..	..	..	Demand for increase of wages	Compromise Granted	
Masons	Avignon	Vaucluse	"	June 18-20	2	150	300	Non-payment of wages	"	
Marble masons	Belmont	Isère	"	January 19-23	4	50	200	Demand for increase of wages	Negative	
Morocco and kid hands	Lyons	Rhône	"	May 20, 21	1	..	..	Several conditions : demanding the discharge of women, and that non-syndicated men should not be employed, &c.	Compromise	
Morocco and kid hands	"	"	"	Feb. 18, 1887-88 ; July, 1889	850	60	51,000			

Table 1.—STRIKES during the Year 1889—continued.

Description of Trades.	Places.	Departments.	Dates.	Number of Days.	Number of Men on Strike.	Days of Labour Lost.	Causes of the Strikes.	Results
Engineers ..	Lyon ..	Rhône ..	December 2-4 ..	2	11	22	Demand for reduction of hours of labour to 10 hours ..	Negative
Leather dressers ..	Grenoble ..	Isère ..	July 21 to Aug. 24 ..	34	500	17,000	As to the employment of apprentices' premiums ..	"
" ..	Fontaine ..	" ..	Jan. 31 to Feb. 4. ..	5	97	485	Discharge of a workman ..	"
" ..	Graulhet ..	Tarn ..	June 5 to Aug. 21 ..	78	11,100	865,800	Demand for increase of wages. ..	"
" ..	Annouay ..	Ardèche ..	July 22 to Aug. 5 ..	13	23	299	" ..	"
Joiners ..	Paris ..	Seine ..	March 13-17 ..	4	90	360	" ..	"
" ..	Lyons ..	Rhône ..	July 4 ..	4	25	100	" ..	"
" ..	" ..	" ..	November 25 ..	10	10	100	Reduction of wages ..	"
" ..	" ..	" ..	May 26 to July 1. ..	36	16	576	Sundry conditions of labour ..	Granted
Miners ..	Montjean ..	Mayenne-et-Loire ..	March 18-26 ..	8	100	800	Discharge of a foreman ..	"
" ..	Guénon - Déchayette (Ainche) ..	Nord ..	October 27 ..	15	600	9,000	Demand for increase of wages. ..	"
" ..	Leus ..	Pas-de-Calais ..	" 8 ..	"	1,000	"	" ..	"
" ..	Mouthieux ..	Loire ..	July 10 ..	3	"	"	" ..	Compromise
" ..	Dorignic (mine de l'Escayette) ..	Nord ..	October 20 to November 20 ..	30	1,100	3,300	As to conditions of labour ..	Negative
" ..	Saint-Chamond ..	Loire ..	July 19 ..	"	"	"	Demand for increase of wages. ..	"
" ..	Raisnes (commune de Vicoigne) ..	Nord ..	February 23-25 ..	3	60	180	Insufficient lighting ..	"
" ..	Raisnes (commune de Vicoigne) ..	" ..	July 2-4 ..	3	40	120	" ..	"
" ..	La Forêt ..	Pas-de-Calais ..	October ..	"	"	"	Demand for increase of wages. ..	"

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Table 1.—STRIKES during the Year 1889—continued.

Description of Trades.	Places.	Departments.	Dates.	Number of Days.	Number of Men on Strike.	Days of Labour Lost.	Causes of the Strikes.	Results.
FRANCE.								
Leather stainers	Grenoble	Isère ..	July 26 ..	8	400	3,200	Demand for increase of wages.	Negative
Dyers	Amiens	Somme ..	November 2 ..	..	23	..	"	"
"	Roanne	Loire ..	Jan. 23, Feb. 2 ..	10	35	350	"	"
"	"	"	Jan. 23, Feb. 2 ..	10	36	300	"	"
"	"	"	Jan. 24, Feb. 3 ..	9	40	360	"	"
"	"	"	Jan. 24, Feb. 2 ..	9	8	72	"	"
"	"	"	Jan. 23, Feb. 2 ..	2	30	60	"	"
"	Commines	Nord ..	March 18-20 ..	3	13	429	Request to reduce the hours of labour	Compromises Granted
"	Roanne	Loire ..	February 26-28 ..	33	..	..	Do. .. do.	"
"	"	"	Jan. 24, Feb. 4 ..	11	10	110	"	"
"	"	"	Jan. 24, Feb. 5 ..	12	7	84	"	"
"	"	"	Jan. 23, Feb. 3 ..	10	8	80	"	"
"	"	"	Jan. 24, Feb. 2 ..	9	16	144	"	"
"	"	"	Jan. 23, Feb. 1 ..	3	90	270	Demand for increase of wages.	"
"	"	"	Jan. 23, Feb. 3 ..	10	50	590	"	"
"	"	"	Jan. 24, Feb. 4 ..	11	9	99	"	"
"	"	"	Jan. 24, Feb. 5 ..	11	35	385	"	"
"	"	"	Jan. 24, Feb. 7 ..	14	70	980	"	"
"	"	"	June 13-17 ..	4	1,500	6,000	Demand for expulsion of Italians	Negative
Navies	Gondrecourt..	Meuse ..	August 30.. ..	5	180	900	Dispute between French and Italians..	"
Railway navies	Ervy - Cour- taout	Aube ..	October 25-26 ..	1	120	120	Demanding the discharge of Italians ..	"
"	Belgodère	Corse ..	..	..	..	..	..	"

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Navies and masons employed on build- ing a quay ..	Bordeaux ..	Gironde ..	August 12-15 ..	3	40	120	Demand for increase of wages..
Railway navies ..	St.-Georges- Aruon ..	Indre.. ..	February 26-27 ..	2	50	100	"
" ..	St.-Georges- Aruon ..	"	July 18 ..	1	80	80	"
" ..	Callas.. ..	Var	May 13-17 ..	4	200	800	Dispute between French and Italians.. ..
" ..	Joinville ..	Haute-Marne ..	June 17 ..	2	1,000*	2,000	Demand for increase of wages..
Navies for sewers ..	Paris ..	Seine ..	June 12 ..	..	30	..	"
Navies on the Wes- tern Railway and other labourers ..	" ..	" ..	February 23 ..	..	..	..	(?)
Weavers ..	Thizy.. ..	Rhône ..	Nov. 27 to Jan. 15, 1889 ..	48	300	14,400	Demand for increase of wages..
" ..	" ..	" ..	Dec. 7 to Jan. 17..	31	320	9,920	"
" ..	St.-Vincent- de-Reins ..	" ..	Nov. 27 to Feb. 5..	68	130	8,840	"
" ..	Thizy.. ..	" ..	Nov. 25 to Jan. 14..	49	400	19,600	"
" ..	" ..	Loire ..	March 25 ..	1	80	80	"
" ..	Saulzoir ..	Pas-de-Calais ..	June 13 ..	3	170	510	"
" ..	Bac-St.-Maur ..	" ..	March 1-13 ..	13	115	1,495	"
" ..	" ..	Rhône ..	October 17-19 ..	2	160	320	"
" ..	Saint Igny ..	" ..	May 10 to June 8..	28	2,000	56,000	"
" ..	Thizy.. ..	" ..	July 7-9 ..	2	150	300	"
" ..	Saint - Just- d'Avron ..	" ..	March 4-21 ..	17	138	2,346	"
" ..	Armentières ..	Nord ..	Dec. 6 to Jan. 17, 1889 ..	42	180	7,560	"
" ..	Montagny ..	Loire ..	February 18-25 ..	7	200	1,400	"
" ..	Roanne ..	" ..					

Table 1.—Strikes during the Year 1889—continued.

Description of Trades.	Places.	Departments.	Dates.	Number of Days.	Number of Men on Strike.	Days of Labour Lost.	Causes of the Strikes.	Results.
Weavers	Roanne	Loire	Feb. 21 to Mar. 4.	12	250	3,000	Demand for reduction of hours of labour	Granted
"	"	"	February 12-27	15	270	4,050	"	"
"	Haspres	"	Feb. 26 to Apr. 3.	36	1,000	36,000	Demand for increase of wages.	"
"	Bailleul	Nord	March 8-17	8	1,500	12,000	"	"
"	Armentières	"	March 4-9	5	103	515	Reduction of wages	Abandoned
"	"	"	March 4-9	5	650	3,250	"	"
"	"	"	March 6-9	3	95	285	"	"
"	Boubaix	"	August 23-27	5	20	100	"	"
"	"	"	August 21-24	3	130	390	Delay in payment of wages	"
"	Saulcy	Vosges	January 18-20	2	114	228	"	Satisfaction given
"	Cublize	Rhône	August 19-22	3	80	240	Insults by a workman	Satisfaction given, the workman discharged
"	Crocq.	Oise	Oct. 14 to Nov. 4.	20	70	1,400	Respecting fines and badly executed work	Satisfaction given
"	Armentières	Nord	March 6-27	11	94	1,084	Obligation to work at two trades	Satisfaction given
"	"	"	March 5-9	4	100	400	"	Satisfaction given
"	Houplines	"	March 4-11	7	135	945	Publication of a reduced tariff.	Satisfaction given
"	Tourcoing	"	October 7-8	2	150	300	Demand to discharge a foreman	Satisfaction given

	Chollet	Maine-et-Loire	June 20-23	3	30	90	"	"	Satisfaction given
"	"	Tarn ..	July 1-5 ..	5	60	300	"	Demand for increase of wages..	Compromise
"	"	Labastide ..	March 2-13 ..	12	15	180	"	"	"
"	"	Chauvaillat ..	Aug. 20 to Sept. 18	27	1,500	40,500	"	"	"
"	"	Plassac-Thizy ..	Nov. 19 to Jan. 14	56	320	1,792	"	"	"
"	"	Grandris ..	May 14-20 ..	6	48	288	"	"	"
"	"	Tararo ..	May 20-25 ..	5	29	145	"	"	"
"	"	Grandris ..	December 11-19 ..	8	75	600	"	"	"
"	"	Aujoutey ..	August 16-26 ..	10	160	1,600	"	"	"
"	"	Houplines ..	March 2-9 ..	7	235	1,645	"	"	"
"	"	La Gorgue ..	March 11-15 ..	5	68	340	"	"	"
"	"	Nieppe ..	March 11-25 ..	14	70	980	"	"	"
"	"	Houplines ..	June 4-21 ..	17	167	2,839	"	"	"
"	"	Condé - sur ..	March 7-9 ..	2	158	316	"	"	"
"	"	Noiréau ..	Oct. 31 to Nov. 6..	7	100	700	"	"	"
"	"	Condé - sur - Noiréau ..	Oct. 31 to Nov. 5..	6	150	900	"	Demand for increase of wages, and severity of a foreman ..	"
"	"	Loire ..	February 14-15 ..	2	165	330	"	Demand for increase of wages..	"
"	"	"	February 6-9 ..	3	280	840	"	"	"
"	"	"	February 9-19 ..	10	250	2,500	"	"	"
"	"	"	January 13-23 ..	4	160	640	"	Demand for increase of wages and for the discharge of a workman ..	"
"	"	"	Jan. 27 to Feb. 4..	8	375	3,000	"	Demand for reduction in hours of labour ..	"
"	"	Nord ..	March 4-16 ..	12	195	2,340	"	Reduction of wages ..	"
"	"	"	March 12-15 ..	3	235	705	"	"	"
"	"	Tarn ..	March 5-13 ..	9	50	450	"	"	"
"	"	Vosges ..	June 1-4 ..	4	50	200	"	Sundry claims relating to con- ditions of labour ..	"
"	"	Provanchères ..	Dec. 31 to Jan. 23, 1890 ..	24	150	3,600	"	Bad quality of raw materials ..	"

Negative

Table 1.—STRIKES during the Year 1889—continued.

Description of Trades.	Places.	Departments.	Dates.	Number of Days.	Number of Men on Strike.	Days of Labour Lost.	Causes of the Strikes.	Results.
Weavers	Thizy..	Rhône	Nov. 28 to Jan. 14	46	400	18,400	Different claims relating to conditions of labour ..	Negative
"	" "	"	Nov. 27 to Jan. 14	47	500	23,500	Different claims relating to conditions of labour ..	"
"	Grandris	"	September 9-12	3	170	510	Demand for reduction of hours of labour ..	"
"	Armentières..	Nord	March 13-16	3	150	450	New tariff ..	"
"	"	"	March 2-9	7	450	3,150	" ..	"
"	Houplines ..	"	March 6-9	3	400	1,200	" ..	"
"	La Madeleine	"	March 12-17	5	300	1,500	Influence of strikes in the neighbourhood ..	"
"	Lille ..	"	March 11-16	5	140	700	Do. do.	"
"	Roubair	"	September 5-6	1	40	40	Relating to fines.	"
"	"	"	May 28-30	3	35	105	Demand for the discharge of a foreman ..	"
"	Reims	Marne	December 2	1	185	185	Relative to the time for entering factories ..	"
"	Saint-Dié	Vosges	November 23-29	6	74	444	Demand for increase of wages..	"
"	Amplepuis	Rhône	May 28	24	600	14,400	" "	"
"	Grandris	"	June	"	300	"	" "	"
"	Cours.	"	July 22	"	"	"	" "	"
Blanket weavers	"	"	July 23	"	1,800	"	" "	"
"	L'Arbrele	"	June 3	22	30	660	" "	"
Velvet weavers	Le Puits	Belfort	January 14-30	16	300	4,800	" "	"
Weavers	Bac-St.-Maur	Pas-de-Calais	March 13-15	3	180	540	" "	"
"	Neuvilly	Nord	Mar. 23 to Apr. 16	23	400	9,200	" "	"
"	Cambrai	"	Feb. 18 to Mar. 4.	14	160	2,240	" "	"

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Table 1.—STRIKES during the Year 1889—continued.

Description of Trades.	Places.	Departments.	Dates.	Number of Days.	Number of Men on Strike.	Days of Labour Lost.	Causes of the Strikes.	Results.
Weavers	Thizy..	Rhône	July 2-5 ..	3	500	1,500	Demand to take back a discharged workman..	Negative
"	Rieux	Nord...	November 16-19	3	80	240	Demand for the discharge of a foreman and for two discharged workmen to be taken back ..	"
"	Armentières	"	March 18-25	7	175	1,225	Discharge of an apprentice ..	"
"	Godewersee	"	March 12-15	3	25	75	Relating to fines ..	"
"	Yele..	"	March 18-27	9	75	675	Influence of strikes in the neighbourhood..	"
"	Halluin	"	March 16-27	11	100	1,100	Ditto	"
"	"	"	March 16-27	11	150	1,650	"	"
"	"	"	March 16-27	11	250	2,750	"	"
"	"	"	March 16-27	11	300	3,300	"	"
"	"	"	March 15-17	12	120	1,440	"	"
"	"	"	March 14-27	14	25	350	"	"
"	Houplines	"	March 4-9	5	700	3,500	Relating to the application of a new tariff ..	"
"	Lille	"	March 13-26	14	11	154	Influence of other strikes ..	"
"	"	"	March 11-14	3	85	255	"	"
"	"	"	March 12-26	15	65	975	"	"
"	"	"	March 12-18	7	..	..	"	"

	Sept. 30, Oct. 2	3	280	690	Demanding the discharge of a foreman..
"	"	11	95	1,045	Ditto
"	"	5	250	1,250	"
"	Loire..	9	80	720	Without apparent motive (conditions of labour and wages)..
"	Saint-Quentin	9	208	1,872	Ditto
"	"	8	180	1,440	"
"	"	2	100	200	"
"	"	2	26	52	"
"	"	7	100	700	"
"	"	2	75	300	"
"	Loire..	..	..	..	Demand for increase of wages and for the discharge of a workman
"	"	..	..	..	Demand for increase of wages..
Blanket weavers	St. Victor-sur-Roanne	..	..	..	Discharge of workmen ..
"	Roanne	1	150	150	"
"	"	2	150	300	"
"	Grandris	2	150	300	"
"	"	60	65	3,900	Demand for increase of wages..
Wire gauze makers..	Lyons	60	21	1,260	"
"	La Bidoire	30	45	510	Relating to fines ..
Wire-drawers	Allevillers	30	17	510	Reduction of wages ..
"	Pont-de-Noy	34	43	1,462	"
"	Jura	30	42	1,260	"
"	Lods	30	42	1,260	"
"	Champagnole	30	42	1,260	"
					Negative

Table 2. — CLASSIFICATION of Strikes during the Year 1889, by Order of Trades, Causes and Results.

Number of Strikes.	Trades.	Strikes in Respect of which Results were Obtained.										Un-known Causes.
		With Complete Results for Workmen.			Settled by Compromise.			No Results Obtained.				
		Demand for Increase of Wages.	On Ac-count of Reduction of Wages.	Other Causes.	Demand for Increase of Wages.	On Ac-count of Reduction of Wages.	Other Causes.	Demand for Increase of Wages.	On Ac-count of Reduction of Wages.	Other Causes.		
5	Dressers of stuffs, &c.	..	..	4	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1	Slate sawyers	1	..	..	..	..	..	3	..	..	..	..
8	Bakers	2	..	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1	Jewellers	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1
5	Embroiderers	..	..	..	..	1	1	2	..	..	2	..
3	Hosiery	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..
1	Tulle makers	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
9	Shoe and boot makers	3	1	..	..	..	..	1	2	..	1	..
4	Loaders and carters	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	..	2
2	Building yards	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	..
1	Porcelain makers	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..
1	Chain makers	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..
1	Chair makers	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..
5	Decorators	..	3	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	1	..
29	Spinners	2	..	..	1	1	..	22	2	..	..	..
1	Percussion cap and cartridge makers	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
16	Metallurgists	1	..	..	1	4	..	3	2	..	3	2
4	Leather dressers	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	2	..
2	Morocco leather makers	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..

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Table 2.—CLASSIFICATION of Strikes during the Year 1889, by Order of Trades, Causes and Results—continued.

Number of Strikes.	Trades.	Strikes in Respect of which Results were Obtained.							Un- known Causes.		
		With Complete Results for Workmen.		Settled by Compromise.			No Results Obtained.				
		Demand for Increase of Wages.	On Ac- count of Reduction of Wages.	Other Causes.	Demand for Increase of Wages.	On Ac- count of Reduction of Wages.	Other Causes.	Demand for Increase of Wages.		On Ac- count of Reduction of Wages.	Other Causes.
16	Dyers	5	..	4	..	..	1	6	..	..	1
2	Fence makers	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	1
1	Machine tile makers	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..
3	Cabinet makers	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
1.	Cabmen	..	..	1	..	..	..	3	..	..	..
4	Joiners	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1	..	..
2	Lithographic printers	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	1	..
1	Commissionaires in hosiery	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..
1	Theatre machinists	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..
1	Engineers and drivers	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..
5	Military equipment makers	1	..	..	1	..	..	3	1	..	1
1	Phosphate manure makers	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1	Parcels deliveries	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..
1	Masons	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..
1	Marble masons	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1	Tobacco factory hands	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	1
1	Stone cutters	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
1	Hemp carders	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
1	Refiners	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
10	Navvies	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	5	..	2*
1	Carpet weavers	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..

140	Weavers...	18	5	8	20	3	13	31	3	33	6
3	Stone cutters	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	1	1
14	Mines ..	1	..	2	1	..	1	1	..	2	6
1	Readers of designs	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..
1	Pipe makers	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..
1	Flint gatherers	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
1	Tanners ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	..
4	Glass makers	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	2	..
1	Velvet makers	..	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..
321	Total ..	33	10	22	34	11	20	94	15	57	25
			65			65			166		

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RECAPITULATION.

Results.	Demand for Increase of Wages.	Reduction of Wages.	Sundry Causes.	Unknown Causes.	Total.
Favourable to Work- men ..	33	10	22	..	65
Compromises ..	34	11	20	..	65
Negative results ..	94	15	57	..	166
Unknown results ..	..	..	..	25	25
Total ..	161	36	99	25	321

* Italians.

Table 3.—NUMBER of Strikes of which Notice has been given to the Authorities, by Annual Order since 1852.

	Number of Strikes.					
1852	..	..	..	..	..	1
1853	..	..	..	..	..	4
1856	..	..	..	..	..	3
1857	..	..	..	..	..	9
1858	..	..	..	..	..	12
1859	..	..	..	..	..	10
1860	..	..	..	..	..	28
1861	..	..	..	..	..	25
1862	..	..	..	..	..	24
1863	..	..	..	..	..	15
1864	..	..	..	..	..	19
1865	..	..	..	..	..	15
1866	..	..	..	..	..	21
1867	..	..	..	..	..	25
1868	..	..	..	..	..	26
1869	..	..	..	..	..	25
1870	..	..	..	..	..	26
1871	..	..	..	..	..	12
1872	..	..	..	..	..	7
1873	..	..	..	..	..	1
1874	..	..	..	..	..	21
1875	..	..	..	..	..	27
1876	..	..	..	..	..	48
1877	..	..	..	..	..	30
1878	..	..	..	..	..	33
1879	..	..	..	..	..	55
1880	..	..	..	..	..	72
1882	..	..	..	..	..	182
1883	..	..	..	..	..	141
1884	..	..	..	..	..	89
1885	..	..	..	..	..	108
1886	..	..	..	..	..	160
1887	..	..	..	..	..	108
1888	..	..	..	..	..	110
1889	..	..	..	..	..	321
Total	..	..	..	..	..	1,813

Table No. 4.—STATISTICS of Strikes from 1852 to 1889 by Order of Trades, Causes, and Results.

I. WEAVERS.

Results.	Causes.			Total.
	Demand for Increase of Wages.	Reduction of Wages.	Other Causes.	
Satisfaction given to workmen	56	28	23	107
Compromise	49	43	26	118
Negative results ..	95	115	88	298
Total	200	186	137	523

II. SPINNERS.

Results.	Causes.			
	Demand for Increase of Wages.	Reduction of Wages.	Other Causes.	Total.
Satisfaction given to workmen	13	7	4	24
Compromise	7	8	2	17
Negative results ..	59	38	19	116
Total	79	53	25	157

III. METALLURGISTS.

Results.	Causes.			
	Demand for Increase of Wages.	Reduction of Wages.	Other Causes.	Total.
Satisfaction given to workmen	12	1	10	23
Compromise	17	10	4	31
Negative results ..	29	21	24	74
Total	58	32	38	128

IV. MINERS.

Results.	Causes.			
	Demand for Increase of Wages.	Reduction of Wages.	Other Causes.	Total.
Satisfaction given to workmen	4	..	5	9
Compromise	3	..	2	5
Negative results ..	38	5	19	62
Total	45	5	26	76

Table No. 5.—STATISTICS of Strikes from 1852-89, by Order of Trades, Causes and Results.

I.—WEAVERS.

Causes of the Strikes.	Results of the Strikes.				
	Favourable to Workmen.	Com- promise.	Negative.	Unknown.	Total.
Cause unknown, or without alleged motives ...	...	...	7	2	9
Demand for increase of wages ...	56	47	102	2	207
Discharge of workmen ...	...	...	11	2	13
Bad faith of employer ...	...	...	1	...	1
Against employer's choice of apprentices ...	...	...	1	...	1
Relating to extra work done by a workman ...	...	...	1	...	1
Relating to fines ...	1	4	8	...	13
Demanding the discharge of an engineer, a foreman, and a searcher ...	5	1	10	...	16
Reduction of wages ...	26	43	118	...	187
Delay in payment of wages ...	1	...	1	...	2
Sundry grievances about conditions of labour ...	14	13	14	...	41
Manner of paying wages... ..	...	2	3	...	5
Demanding the discharge of a workman... ..	...	...	1	...	1
Demand to work on the job ...	...	...	1	...	1
Refusal to work on the job ...	...	...	1	...	1
Mode of valuation of work ...	...	...	1	...	1
Want of raw material ...	...	...	1	...	1
Management of the pension fund ...	...	...	1	...	1
Bad quality of raw material ...	2	2	3	...	7
Working four looms or frames instead of two ...	...	...	1	...	1
Working two looms or frames instead of one ...	2	...	1	...	3
Introduction of machinery ...	...	...	1	...	1
Institution of a school fund ...	...	...	1	...	1
Reduction of the working day ...	...	2	2	...	2
Influence of other strikes ...	...	1	11	...	13
Relating to hours for meals ...	...	...	...	...	1
Demanding reduction in hours of labour ...	3	4	...	...	7
Insults by a workman ...	1	...	...	...	1
Total	111	119	303	6	539

Table No. 6.—STATISTICS of Strikes from 1852-89, by Order of Trades, Causes and Results.

II.—SPINNERS.

Causes of the Strikes.	Results of the Strikes.				
	Favourable to Workmen.	Com-promise.	Negative.	Unknown.	Total.
Cause unknown	...	...	1	...	1
Demand for increase of wages ...	14	6	...	...	78
Reduction of wages	4	7	...	...	48
Sundry grievances relating to conditions of labour	...	...	4	...	4
Demanding the discharge of an engineer; a foreman, &c. ...	1	...	3	...	4
Demanding to be paid by the hour	1	...	...	...	1
Reduction of work—black work ...	1	1	1	...	3
Refusal to work more than 12 hours, and excess of work ...	1	2	5	...	8
Discharge of workmen; of fore- men	...	...	4	...	4
Defective state of tools	...	...	1	...	1
Obligation to work at one loom or frame out of two	...	...	1	...	1
Suppression of one piecer out of two	...	...	1	...	1
Change of the manner of paying ...	...	...	1	...	1
Relating to fines	...	...	1	...	1
Severity of a foreman	...	...	...	1	1
Total	22	16	118	1	157

Table No. 7.—STATISTICS of Strikes from 1852-89, by Order of Trades, Causes and Results.

III.—METALLURGISTS.

Causes of the Strikes.	Results of the Strikes.				
	Favourable to Workmen.	Compromise.	Negative.	Unknown.	Total.
Cause unknown	...	...	...	...	...
Demand for increase of wages ...	7	12	24	...	43
Reduction of wages	1	6	13	...	20
Reduction of working hours ...	...	1	2	...	3
Increase of working hours without increase of wages ...	...	...	1	...	1
Demanding the discharge of apprentices	...	...	2	...	2
Employer's opposition to the formation of a syndical chamber	...	...	1	...	1
Relating to fines	1	...	1	...	2
Sundry grievances relating to conditions of labour	1	...	3	...	4
Relating to the pay day	...	...	1	...	1
Payment for tools by the workmen	...	...	1	...	1
Setting to work on the job	...	...	3	...	3
Discharge of workmen	...	...	4	...	4
Demanding the discharge of foremen and workmen... ..	2	...	9	...	11
Delay in payment of wages	3	...	1	...	4
Demanding reduction of labour on account of a sum retained for a fund for insurance against accidents	2	1	...	1	5
Relating to a co-operative society	...	1	...	...	1
Bad quality of the coal intended for use in the forge	...	1	...	...	1
Demanding that a director should be retained	1	...	...	...	1
Total	19	23	66	1	109

Table No. 8.—STATISTICS of Strikes from 1852–89, by Order of Trades, Causes and Results.

IV.—MINERS.

Causes of the Strikes.	Results of the Strikes.				
	Favourable to Workmen.	Com- promise.	Negative.	Unknown.	Total.
Cause unknown	...	...	...	5	5
Demand for increase of wages ...	6	4	24	2	48
Reduction of wages	...	...	5	...	5
Demanding the discharge of an engineer; a foreman; &c. ...	3	1	4	...	8
Introduction of apprentices ...	...	...	1	...	1
Reduction of hours of labour ...	...	...	1	...	1
Sundry grievances relating to conditions of hours of labour ...	...	2	3	2	7
Discharge of a workman ...	...	...	3	...	3
Increase of hours of labour ...	...	...	1	...	1
Insufficient lighting	...	...	2	...	2
Demanding a reduction of the hours of labour	1	...	1	...	2
Sum retained for a benefit aid society	...	...	3	...	3
Blasting powder to be paid by workmen	...	...	1	...	1
Payment by the job	...	...	1	...	1
Closing a door so as to prevent fraudulent absence	...	...	1	...	1
Change in the manner of pay- ment	...	...	1	...	1
Severity of a foreman	1	...	...	...	1
Total	11	7	61	9	88

Table No. 9.—STRIKES during 1889, by Departments.

	Number of Strikes.
Aisne	14
Alpes (Basses)	1
Ardèche	1
Ardennes	3
Aube	3
Bouches-du-Rhône	4
Calvados	2
Charente-Inférieure	1
Corse	2
Doubs	1
Eure	2
Gard	4
Garonne (Haute)	1
Gironde	4
Ille-et-Vilaine	9
Indre	3
Isère	8
Jura	2
Loire	43
Loire-Inférieure	4
Lot	1
Maine-et-Loire	3
Marne	1
Marne (Haute)	1
Meuse	2
Nord	80
Oise	2
Orne	1
Pas-de-Calais	15
Territory of Belfort	2
Rhône	63
Saône (Haute)	1
Saône-et-Loire	1
Savoie	1
Seine	11
Somme	5
Tarn	10
Var	5
Vaucluse	2
Vosges	7
Total	321

Table No. 10.—STRIKES from 1852 to 1889, by Departments.

	Number of Strikes.
Ain	2
Aisne	51
Allier	5
Alpes (Basses)	2
Alpes-Maritimes	7
Ardèche	14
Ardennes	42
Arriège	2
Aube	15
Aude	6
Aveyron	19
Bouches-du-Rhône	41
Calvados	11
Charente-Inferieure	8
Cher	19
Corrèze	2
Corse	4
Côte-d'Or	3
Côtes-du-Nord	1
Creuse	4
Drôme	5
Eure	7
Eure-et-Loire	1
Finistère	4
Gard	22
Garonne (Haute)	8
Gironde	43
Hauts-Alpes	11
Ille-et-Vilaine	20
Indre	3
Indre-et-Loire	34
Isère	54
Jura	3
Landes	1
Loir-et-Cher	7
Loire	84
Loire (Haute)	4
Loire-Inferieure	38
Loiret	3
Lot	3
Lot-et-Garonne	3
Maine-et-Loire	18
Manche	7
Mayenne	36
Marne (Haute)	7
Mayenne	2
Meurthe-et-Moselle	5
Meuse	12
Morbihan	1
Nièvre	17
Nord	405
Oise	14
Orne	3
Pas-de-Calais	53
Puy-de-Dôme	3
Pyrénées (Basses)	4
Pyrénées-Orientales	2
Territory of Belfort	16
Rhône	154
Saône (Haute)	4
Saône-et-Loire	11

Carry forward 1,419

Table No. 10.—STRIKES from 1852 to 1889, by Departments—
continued.

						Number of Strikes.
	Brought forward ..	..	..	..	..	1,419
Sarthe ..	..	..	..	..	..	17
Savoie ..	..	..	..	..	..	4
Savoie (Haute) ..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Seine ..	..	..	..	..	..	156
Seine-Inférieure ..	..	..	..	..	..	54
Seine-et-Marne ..	..	..	..	..	..	3
Seine-et-Oise ..	..	..	..	..	..	8
Sèvres (Deux) ..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Somme ..	..	..	..	..	..	54
Tarn ..	..	..	..	..	..	24
Tarn-et-Garonne ..	..	..	..	..	..	1
Var ..	..	..	..	..	..	6
Vaucluse ..	..	..	..	..	..	5
Vendée ..	..	..	..	..	..	2
Vienne (Haute) ..	..	..	..	..	..	10
Vosges ..	..	..	..	..	..	56
Yonne ..	..	..	..	..	..	4
	Total ..	..	..	..	..	1,825

APPENDIX J.

SUMMARY OF A REPORT ON THE CONDITION OF THE RAILWAY
EMPLOYÉ IN FRANCE.

The staff of the company taken as a model is composed of 23,000 employés.

In 1875 the company received 1,745 applications for employment; in 1877, 2,625 applications; in 1879, 3,530; and in 1882 the number increased to 4,766.

Every application must be addressed to the manager; it is examined summarily, and then transmitted to one of the heads of the company's departments.

Every applicant must be at least 21 years old, and not more than 35.

They are examined, free of charge, by the company's medical officer, who gives them a certificate stating whether they are fit for active duty or not.

As vacancies occur choice is made first among those candidates who have completed their military service, and who appear to offer the best guarantees for fulfilling the conditions required for the vacant post.

After them come those who by their antecedents and position appear to merit consideration, and finally those provided with certificates or special recommendations.

When on active duty the employé is at first paid by the day, the wages varying according to the nature of the work. In the clerical staff salaries commence at the rate of from 100 fr. to 150 fr. per month.

After a period of probation (six months or a year) if the employé's services have been satisfactory he is classed, *i.e.*, registered, as a member of the regular staff, and then receives a commission signed by the director of the company.

By the fact of accepting this commission the employé agrees to be bound by all the company's regulations.

Henceforth he is subject to all the obligations of his post, but at the same time he immediately acquires the right to a pension and benefits by the various institutions, such as stores, &c., and the numerous benevolent measures relating to board, fuel, &c., medical care, free travelling over the company's lines, advances, assistance, &c., &c.

We shall now refer to these various institutions from which the staff derives a considerable increase of emoluments.

Pension Fund.

A reserve of 4 per cent. is retained each month on the salary of a regular employé, which, together with the first-twelfth of any
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increase of salary, is paid into the Government fund for aged persons (Caisse de la Vieillesse de l'Etat), in the name of the employé if he be a bachelor, and, if he be married, then jointly in his name and that of his wife.*

The company forms a special pension fund, maintained by a contribution equal to the sum retained on the salaries of employés. It is by means of this contribution that the company undertakes to ensure to its employés, their widows and children, retiring pensions subject to the following conditions:—

The employés acquire a right to a regular pension on condition of being 55 years of age, and having served for 25 years.

The retiring pension is to be equal to $\frac{3}{10}$ of the average salary of the last six years, with an increase of $\frac{1}{10}$ of the mean salary for every year of service over 25 years, with the condition that no pension shall in any case exceed two-thirds of the average salary.

The maximum retiring pension is fixed at 6,000 fr.

Anticipated Pensions.

Anticipated pensions may be granted to any employé who from ill-health is certified by the company's medical officer to be incapable of fulfilling his duties, but on the express condition of being 50 years of age, and having served at least 20 years.

Widows.—When an employé of the company has completed 15 years' service, whatever may be his age, and if he has been married at least three years, one-half of his pension calculated in proportion to the number of years of service reverts on his death to his widow.

Children.—In case of the mother's death one-half of the pension, formed as above, reverts to each child in equal shares till the age of 18 years.

If the employé leaves the company's service before he has earned his pension he is handed, as being his own property, a pension book of the Government fund for aged persons, in which are entered, in his own name or in that of his wife, the total payments made for him by the care of the company. The total represents exactly the sums retained for his pension out of his pay, and he is allowed to benefit after the age of 50 years by the annuity produced by such payments and the interest thereon.

The employé may thenceforth continue his payments to the Government fund for aged persons, if he thinks fit, after having left the company's service, with the view of increasing the sum standing to his credit.

The annual portion contributed by the French company to its pension fund is now 1,360,000 fr.

* The general meeting held on March 31, 1892, decided to adopt 8 per cent. from and after January 1, 1891, as the rate of the company's contribution to the pension fund.

The total number of employés in receipt of pensions up to December 31, 1882, was:—

	Number.
Employés	1,078
Widows	592
Children	55
Total	1,720

The synopsis of the pensions paid from 1865 to 1882 relating to active duties on the lines only is composed as follows:—

Twenty-six chief or assistant officials at dépôts received an average annual pension of 1,813 fr.; 91 engineers received 1,090 fr.; 4 stokers received 742 fr.

121 employés, of an average duration of service of 26 years, have consequently been paid an average annual pension of 1,234 fr.

Nine widows of chief or assistant officials at dépôts were paid during the same period average pensions of 800 fr.; 35 widows of engineers, 436 fr.; 2 widows of stokers, 216 fr.

Thus 46 widows of employés have received during the same period an average pension of 497 fr. per annum. (See footnote, p. 66.)

Benefit Club.

The benefit club, founded by the company, was instituted for the purpose of aiding sick and necessitous workmen.

The funds of the club are composed of a reserve of $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. upon the workmen's wages, and a contribution by the company of a sum equal to the total reserve fund, paid by the members, plus all fines.

The club is managed by a president and two vice-presidents nominated by the company, and representatives elected by the members.

In virtue of an excellent measure adopted in 1881 deserving workmen are admitted to be classed as regular employés after having been employed by the company for at least 5 years.

By a temporary provision an annual pension of 365 fr. is granted to aged servants of the company who have been employed during 20 years, but who cannot be classed as regular employés.

The benefit fund costs the company 120,000 fr. per annum.

Stores.

The company has founded exclusively for the benefit of the employés and the members of their families living with them, stores that provide groceries, wine, and household utensils at the most reduced rates.

At Paris all articles sold from the stores are delivered either to the members at the stores or by carriers at the purchasers' dwellings.

In the provinces the stores undertake the delivery of the goods purchased twice each month, on every part of the line. In both the above cases the stores recoup the cost of delivery by means of a monthly reserve on the salaries, thus avoiding the passing of any cash.

The stores fix the selling prices by an increase of so much on the cost price as is strictly necessary to cover expenses. The goods are all of excellent quality, and are sold cheaper than the ordinary trade rates, especially in the provinces.

The sale of stores during the last two years amounted to 1,200,000 fr. per annum.

Compensation for Exceptionally High Prices for Provisions.

In case of temporary and exceptionally high prices of provisions there has been allowed to each employé whose wages do not exceed 1,800 fr. in the Department of the Seine, and 1,500 fr. in the other departments, a monthly sum varying according to the number of the members in each family, but not exceeding 15 fr. per family.

The company paid of late years on this account from October 1, 1873, to 30th August, 1874, 902,283 fr., and from December, 1879, to January, 1880, 207,495 fr.

During the latter period a sum of 100,000 fr. was also distributed among the employés on active service who were employed to remove the snow during the extremely cold weather.

Among the foregoing allowances should be included the indemnity of 10 per cent. granted during the Universal Exhibitions of 1878 and 1889 to those employés on duty in Paris whose salaries were less than 2,400 fr.

The cost to the company for this item amounted from May 1 to November 30, 1878, to the sum of 474,445 fr.

Fuel, &c.

Combustibles intended for the use of employés are carried in the same way as drinks and provisions, *i.e.*, at the very low rate of 2 c. per ton and per kilom.

The company, moreover, allows its employés to benefit by the advantageous conditions it is able to obtain from the purveyors of coal for heating its own premises. It also facilitates the immediate payment required on delivery by advancing to every employé who makes the request, and out of his monthly pay, the necessary sum to pay, at the time of delivery, the bill for the coals purchased.

Medical Attendance, Medicines, &c.

Regular employés, their wives, and children living with them and still under their charge, have a right to gratuitous treatment by the company's medical officers. The employés have a right to the free use of medicines, baths, apparatus, and to stay in hospitals, &c., gratis, provided their salaries do not exceed 3,000 fr.

This right to medical aid is only refused in cases of illness caused by misconduct. Medical attendance and medicines during 1882 cost the company 200,000 fr.

Journeys.

The journeys which employés and their families may have to take over the company's lines are permitted on the following conditions:—

Absolute freedom from charge is granted as a right to the employés of every grade over the company's lines. Of course, the class varies according to the rank of the employé.

Superior officials travel by first class, those under the rank of heads of departments by second class, and inferior employés and workmen by third class.

This privilege constitutes a great advantage for the employés. It allows them to reside outside the great centres, where provisions, and especially house rent, are at exorbitant rates. By this means employés on duty at Paris can reside in the environs or in smaller towns, where they find more healthy and comfortable dwellings than in Paris.

The employés have so thoroughly understood this that the great majority of them reside in the suburbs.

Employés' wives are also allowed to travel free of charge when they reside in places deprived of means of visiting the markets of neighbouring towns for the purpose of fetching or taking back work. Children up to the age of 15 who frequent schools, and apprentices up to the age of 18, when the places in which their fathers reside do not possess sufficient school accommodation or facilities for employment, are also allowed to travel free of charge by the company's trains.

Fathers, mothers, wives, and children of employés travel at one-tenth of the usual rate.

The sum produced by tickets issued at one-tenth of the rate in 1881 was 132,743 fr. 30 c.; the concession in favour of the employés (and their families) was therefore 1,194,689 fr. 70 c.

Half rates are allowed to grandfathers, grandmothers, uncles, aunts, stepfathers and mothers, brothers, sisters, half-brothers and sisters, sons and daughters-in-law, and nephews and nieces of employés.

The sum produced by tickets issued half price in 1881 was 163,790 fr. 70 c.

The company therefore made a concession of an equal sum, viz., 163,790 fr. 70 c.

Over and above the tickets called "service tickets," the number of free passes for residence at a distance, purchase of provisions, or education, delivered to employés and their wives and children during the year 1882 was thus composed - employés, 3,500; wives, 2,850; children, 500.

Here it may be stated that the company's agents obtain from other companies, by reciprocity and the intermediary of the company, a reduction of one-fourth of the usual rate for their employés, and to one-half for the members of their families residing with and provided for by them.

The rates allowed for journeys over the company's lines of pensioned employés and their wives, and the widows of those who have died after 15 years' service, are the following:—

Pensioned Employés.—Free passes during the year following the date of their being pensioned, one-fourth of the rate during the second year, and half rate during the third year.

Wives of Pensioned Employés.—One-fourth of the rate during the first year after their husband's pension commenced; half rate during the second and third years.

Widows of Employés who have Died after 15 Years' Service.—Half rates for themselves and their children residing with them during the year following their husband's death.

Advances—Assistance.

When certain employés are in embarrassed or unfortunate circumstances, the company assists them by making, at their request, an advance payable, without interest, by monthly retention of one-tenth of their pay, or in the most deserving cases grants certain aid.

The sums paid under this head in 1882 were:—

	Francs.
For sums advanced	64,985
Aid during the year	141,976
And at the end of the year there was distributed a further sum of.	48,000

Gifts and Gratuities.

Independently of advances, the employés receive either at the end of or during the year certain gratuities as a reward for praiseworthy conduct.

The gratuities given by the company at the end of 1882 for good conduct amounted to 695,700 fr.

Promotion.

At the commencement of each year an increase of salary is also granted to a certain number of employés. This increase amounted on January 1, 1883, to 133,000 fr.

This measure is quite apart from any increase obtained by the employés of the company in the course of the year when they are promoted to other duties, either on account of changes made on the spot, or by change of residence.

In this company every employé whose services have given no cause for complaint receives by right, every 2 years, an increase of 50 fr. while continuing to reside in the same place, but in such a manner that his regular salary shall not exceed a certain sum in each class of employment.

Grants in Aid of Rent and Cost of Living.

Extra sums varying between 50 fr. and 200 fr. per annum are allowed to the inferior classes of employés who reside in Paris and certain departments where the high rates of rent and cost of living are more particularly felt.

The sum paid by the company for this item amounts to nearly 1,000,000 fr.

Premiums.

Engineers and stokers receive over and above their wages certain premiums or bonuses for good services, and economy in the use of the materials used by them.

The following is a summary of the conditions under which such premiums are granted in France:—

Bonus on Economy in the use of Combustible, Grease, Oil, and other Materials.—Engineers and stokers receive a premium for every ton of combustible and kilogramme of grease economised on the fixed quantity of such materials allowed for their use.

For making up time.—In case of time lost by trains being late, but not through the fault of the engineer, he is allowed additional combustibles properly calculated for each minute of time so made up.

For Care taken of the Engines.—A premium is also allowed to engineers calculated upon the distances run over by the same engine above the regular stated minimum, when such engine shall not have required other repairs than those of ordinary wear and tear.

The amount for each employé of such bonuses, which do not include the grants in aid for rent and living, is very important, as is shown by the following figures relating to work done in 1882:—

				Fixed Pay.	Premium.		Total.
				Francs.	Fr.	c.	Fr. c.
Engineers—							
Maximum	..	..	..	2,700	2,246	70	4,946 70
Average	..	..	..	2,200	1,120	70	3,320 70
Stokers—							
Maximum	..	..	..	1,600	423	05	2,023 05
Average	..	..	..	1,482	218	50	1,700 50

The following is the amount of premiums paid in 1882:—

						Francs.
Engineers	..	..	..	..	..	1,129,545
Stokers	..	..	..	..	..	340,049
Total	..	..	..	..	..	1,469,594

Premiums for punctuality are allowed by the company to the working staff as an encouragement to avoid delays in the service of passenger trains.

This costs for an average year 70,000 fr.

Guards and inspectors of the company receive a percentage in the extra receipts received by them en route on the passenger tickets.

The average in 1882 was:—

						Francs.
For the travelling inspector	..	..	..	..	..	284
„ guard	..	..	..	..	..	129

Journeys to and fro.

Employés and others on active service are allowed a certain sum to make up for extra expenses caused by temporary absence from their ordinary place of residence.

Holidays.

In France, holidays are allowed to employés. In the active service (working, plant, and traction) such employés who by the nature of their duties cannot take advantage of their Sunday's rest, obtain every year holidays of 12 to 20 days with full pay. In the offices, holidays vary from 10 to 20 days per annum also with full pay.

Asylums—Crèches.

In Paris, the gathering into one quarter of the numerous employés at stations and workshops has suggested the idea of founding asylums and “crèches.” These establishments founded and maintained at the company's expense are set up in the quarter inhabited by the majority of employés engaged at such stations and workshops.

The “crèches” take in the sick young children of employés on the usual conditions of establishments of this kind. To the asylums the employés may send their children of both sexes for the whole day. The daughters of employés moreover receive primary education in the schools, where they are received up to the date of their first communion.

The children are provided, gratis, with pure milk of excellent quality, soup, and in summer with wholesome beverages.

The school children are also provided with soup. In winter a distribution is made to the most needy, at the company's cost, of warm clothing, &c., and at the expiration of the school year on prize days, to which the utmost solemnity is given, the most deserving children are presented, besides the usual books and prizes, with savings bank books.

No such institution exists, to our knowledge, in any English company.

Schools—Orphanages.

It should also be stated that the company has founded in the orphanages, bursaries exclusively granted to the children of employes killed or who died during their service.

The children remain in the orphanages—boys till the age of 14 years; girls till the age of 17 years.

Bursaries in Colleges or Special Government Schools.

The company presents to the Government all requests for the grant of bursaries in State institutions to such children of the company's employes as are intended to be brought up to special professions. The company is occasionally fortunate enough to obtain this grant in favour of children not of the above class, whose names could be given if required.

Situations Reserved for Widows and Children of Former Employés.

In France the posts of ticket officers, telegraph clerks, and waiting-room attendants, &c., are reserved for the widows and daughters of former employes, as is also the management of book-stalls at stations; and in further aid to necessitous families the company gives out sewing to the wives of employes.

Wages.

The maximum average wages of engineers and stokers—including the fixed rate, extra pay for residence at a distance, and premiums—amounted in 1882 to:—

						Fr.	c.
Engineers—							
Maximum	..	..	..	..	..	5,340	45
Average	..	..	..	..	..	3,701	60
Stokers—							
Maximum	..	..	..	..	..	2,516	05
Average	..	..	..	..	..	1,989	80

In France employés are paid monthly, the rate of pay being fixed annually.

Engineers are paid by the day—they commence at 6 fr. 25 c. (5s.), if their work is satisfactory they obtain every year an increase of 6*d.* per day, until their pay amounts to 8 fr. 75 c. (7*s.*). Some receive, as an exception, 9 fr. 35 c. (8*s.* 6*d.*) which is the maximum.

Stokers commence at 3 fr. 75 c. (3*s.*) per day. At the end of each year they may obtain 3*d.* per day more and so on by annual increase to the maximum of 5 fr. (4*s.*).

These employés are not paid for the days they do not work (principally Sundays). Nevertheless when by exception they do work on Sundays they are paid one day and a half's wages.

To the fixed rate of pay should be added the premiums for economy, the amount of which per head, as is shown by the above figures (*see* Premiums), is very important in France.

Engineers and stokers are allowed their expenses to and fro when they are obliged, by the nature of their work, to sleep away from their usual residence.

In France engineers are allowed 3*s.* and stokers 2*s.* 6*d.* per day.

COMPARATIVE Table of Wages Paid at the Present Time to some other Employés of the Company.*

	Francs.	
Pointsmen of all grades	1,300	to 2,050
Guards and breakmen	1,300	1,850
Labourers, porters of all grades, navvies, &c. ..	1,000	1,600
Washers	1,200	1,500

Resignation—Expulsion—Dismissal.

In this company employés who resign frequently leave the company at their own convenience on giving their superiors only a few days' notice; others purely and simply abandon their posts.

On its part when the company discharges its employés for misconduct it allows them from 15 days to 6 weeks' wages unless the cause of their discharge be serious, such as theft for instance.

In cases where the company is obliged to discharge an employé on account of the state of his health or incapacity to work, he is allowed an indemnity varying between three months and one year's pay, but before a decision becomes final the employé is put on half pay for at least three months.

The company abstains as much as possible from dismissing an employé, and nearly always gives him the opportunity of resigning.

Certificates are delivered to employés in the company's

* Such wages do not include grants in aid of rent, and cannot be considered as the absolute maximum, for, as has been already observed, every employé whose service has given no cause for complaint receives by right, every 2 years, an increase of 50 fr. (2*l.*) up to a certain limit.

service; which state whether they have resigned or have been summarily expelled or discharged.

Deaths.

In France when an employé dies during active service the funeral expenses are borne by the company at the rate of 10 to 15 per cent. of his annual salary. Assistance is also allowed to the widow and children of the deceased.

Summary.

The company's contribution to the pension fund for one year is 1,360,000 fr.

The following are details of other sums paid by the company for certain benevolent purposes in favour of employés or the members of their families:—

BENEFIT SOCIETY.

	Francs.
One year's contribution	120,000
Special charge for extra labour by inferior employés in re- moving snow—one winter	100,000
Medical attendance, medicines	200,000
Gratuities and aid at end of the year and various allowances	900,000
Premiums to engineers and stokers—one year	1,469,000
" " workmen—one year	100,000
Wholesome beverages	30,000
Asylums' and crèches' expenses	55,000
Total	2,974,000
Company's contribution to pension fund	1,360,000
Making for an average year*	4,334,000

In 1878, during the Universal Exhibition, an allowance of 10 per cent. on the pay was made to inferior employés of the company residing in Paris. This allowance amounted to 475,000 fr.

Sums advanced, without interest, to employés varied between 50,000 fr. and 65,000 fr.

In these expenses the reductions on the carriage of provisions, furniture, combustibles, &c., for the use of employés, and the allowances made to their relatives on railway tickets are not included.

Such benefits are, however, considerable, and it may be stated that during 1881 the diminution on railway tickets alone in

* We may observe that at a moment of extra high prices of provisions the employés were also allowed extra pay, the amount of which for 13 months was 1,109,778 fr.

favour of the employés and their relatives cost the company a sum of 1,358,000 fr. on the ordinary tariff.

The total amount of the indemnity (allowed by the company) for extra work during the Exhibition in 1889 was 600,000 fr. In 1878 it only amounted to 475,000 fr.

Various benevolent measures have been adopted of late years in favour of the working staff, the most important of which are the following, namely:—

The foundation of extra bursaries in different institutions in favour of children of employés killed or wounded in the performance of their duties, or whose parents are known to be specially deserving of interest. These foundations cost the company 25,000 fr. per annum.

The delivery of passes over the various lines to enable employés discharged on account of strikes and their families to return to their homes. The company has, moreover, distributed a sum of 2,200 fr. in aid of the families of 22 employés.

Further facilities for travelling have been obtained by the company on a basis of reciprocity from other French companies. The employés are entitled once a year to a journey over one or more lines free of charge for themselves, and at one-fourth of the usual tariff for the members of their families living with them and dependent on them. Moreover, in order to procure still further advantages for the employés living in the suburbs of Paris, each company delivers passes to the employés of other companies travelling over their lines within a distance of 30 kiloms. at one-fourth of the usual commercial tariff for season tickets.

An allowance is made irrespective of, and not included in, the indemnity for residence varying from 24 fr. to 72 fr., according to the number of children under 16 years of age to those employés who have more than three children.

This costs the company 200,000 fr. per annum.

Finally the company has just increased from 5 to 8 per cent. upon the rate of wages its donation to the pension fund founded in aid of the staff, without increasing the amount retained on the sums paid to them.

APPENDIX K.

PROFIT SHARING.

REGULATIONS AS TO PARTICIPATION BY WORKMEN IN THE PROFITS
OF THE FIRM OF MESSRS. MULLER AND ROGER.

Art. I.—From and after January 1, 1892, besides the payments towards the benefit fund and the proportion fixed at 26 fr. to be paid to the pension fund which will be referred to later, a reserve upon the net profits of the year shall be set apart in favour of the employés and workmen who, by reason of the care and attention shown by them, shall be chosen as participators in the profits.

This participation is intended to constitute for the employés and workmen a savings fund, to be the completion of the benefit fund which assures to them the means of existence in times of sickness, and of the pension fund which provides them with a life annuity when age prevents them from working.

Art. II.—A sum fixed at 26 fr. per annum is to be paid to the National Pension Fund for Aged Persons in favour of such employés and workmen who undertake also to pay a like sum which shall be retained by Messrs. Muller and Roger out of their salaries and wages. This sum of 26 fr. shall be invested by Messrs. Muller and Roger without limit or condition as capital reserved or set apart according to the risk of the party interested in order to constitute for him a pension at 50, 55, or 60 years of age.

All the employés and workmen of the firm have, without exception, right to be paid this fixed sum. They shall also be members of the benefit society.

Art. III.—The sum to be divided shall be distributed among the parties according to the number of shares allotted to them in manner following:—

Art. IV.—The number of persons entitled to participate is fixed at 100, but this number may be increased.

Art. V.—The amount to be distributed shall be divided into 200 equal parts: the participators who have subscribed for a term of less than 6 years shall receive 1 share, those above 6, and under 12 years, 2 shares, those above 12 years, 3 shares. Admission to participation in 2 or 3 shares shall be decided by the council on the proposition of Messrs. Muller and Roger.

Art. VI.—The surplus, that is to say, the sum for which there are no claimants, shall be paid to a reserve fund to be distributed in case of bad seasons or to provide rewards of merit in money for every workman, participator or not, who has invented any improvement productive of economy in work, or who by his conduct, labour, and assiduity shall be worthy of encouragement.

The reserve fund shall not exceed 30,000 fr.

If the reserve be exhausted when all the parts are provided for it shall be replenished by means of a deduction of one-fourth of the amount of the sum shared during the years of participation.

Art. VII.—To be allowed to share in the profits the party must be French, of at least 25 years of age, and have been an employé during three consecutive years of the firm, must have shown zeal and aptitude in his work, and be a member of the pension fund for the aged and the mutual aid society founded by the firm.

Art. VIII.—Candidates for participation should send in a written request to the heads of the firm who alone have the right to present them to the council.

Art. IX.—The Council of Admission and Survey is thus composed—

1. Of two masters as president and vice-president.
2. Of three employés and four foremen nominated by Messrs. Muller and Roger.
3. Of six workmen, three of the foundrymen and three of the finishers, nominated by the participators.

Art. X.—The sum allotted to each participator shall be paid in his name into the savings bank, and his bank book shall be handed to him each year after the accounts of the firm have been balanced.

Art. XI.—Every participator shall have the right to add such further deposits to his account in the savings bank as he may think fit, but he can only dispose of the sum he has himself deposited. The sum derived from his share in the profits can only be withdrawn by him with the consent of the council of management, to which he shall make application in writing.

Art. XII.—Every infringement of these articles may cause the removal of his name from the list of participators, but the withdrawal of the sums paid out of the share money without the authorisation of the council shall of itself, and without appeal, involve such removal.

Art. XIII.—Every participator who shall voluntarily leave the works or shall be discharged on serious grounds shall lose all right to participation. Nevertheless, when his departure is caused by want of work his membership shall not lapse. The employé or workman thus temporarily absenting himself from want of work shall be entitled to a share in the profits proportionate to the time during which he has worked, and he must be ready to return to work on the first notice given, *i.e.*, within eight days. Default on his part to be at the works by the eighth day shall entail the removal of his name from the list.

Article XIV.—Illness and military service are regarded as temporary absence.

Art. XV.—While waiting for authorisation to pay into the savings bank a larger sum than 2,000 fr., when this amount shall be reached there shall be purchased to the best advantage of the participator a certificate of Government stock in his name, which

shall be handed to him, but upon which he can receive the interest only. In very urgent cases, however, a participator may be allowed to sell his certificate and to dispose of a certain sum as provided by Art. XI.

Art. XVI.—After 20 years of participation or at 60 years of age the participator shall be permitted the free disposal of his savings, and from this period the amount of his share shall be paid to him in cash.

Art. XVII.—The ordinary meetings of the council shall be held on the first Sunday of each quarter. Extraordinary meetings shall be specially convened when necessary.

Art. XVIII.—A general meeting of the employés and workmen participators shall be held every year when the accounts have been balanced to hear the report of the Council of Admission and Survey, to learn the amount of the sum to be divided, and to approve, if need be, such modifications in the regulations as Messrs. Muller and Roger may propose. The modifications that experience may cause to be made in the present regulations shall not be retrospective.

Art. XIX.—In case of the death of a participator his account shall be closed at the last balance without any claim to share in those of the current year, and his savings book shall be handed to his administrators.

Art. XX.—The title of participator implies special conditions of stability and attachment to the firm; no participator can be finally discharged without the decision of Messrs. Muller and Roger.

Art. XXI.—Messrs. Muller and Roger reserve to themselves the right to put an end to the present regulations at the expiration of each term if the results are not satisfactory.

The term commences on February 1 in each year and terminates on January 31 of the following year.

Paris, January 1, 1892.

APPENDIX L.

PROFIT SHARING.

LITHOGRAPHIC AND LETTER-PRESS PRINTING WORKS OF MESSRS.
THOMAS BROTHERS, PONTARLIER (DOUBS).

Art. I.—Being desirous of ameliorating the condition of its staff and to encourage saving, which is the only way for workmen to be able to resist the effect of slack seasons, sickness, infirmity and old age, and, moreover, to show their recognition of services rendered, the firm of Thomas Brothers, printers, has organised a system of participation in profits from and after January 1, 1892.

Art. II.—After one year only of employment dating from January 1, each employé, male and female, is allowed to participate in the profits of the establishment.

Art. III.—No one can claim any share in the profits either during the first year of employment or that of discharge.

Art. IV.—With regard to the sum to be divided two reasons shall be taken into consideration, namely, the salary or daily wages, and the number of years of service in the employment of the firm.

Art. V.—After five years' employment from January 1, 1892, every participator shall be paid a bonus of 5 per cent. on the amount of his share in the profits, and after 10 years the bonus shall be 10 per cent. The years of employment must be consecutive, but neither the time of military service nor of sickness shall be regarded as an absence.

Art. VI.—The share of the profits of employées and workmen shall be entered at the end of each term in separate account books in the names of the participators. These books shall be lodged at the office.

Art. VII.—The shares in the profits shall bear interest at the same rate as that paid by the Government institutions. Such interest shall be paid annually to those to whom it belongs according to their own wishes.

Art. VIII.—In order to avoid abuses, and that the savings may not be made away with, the amount thereof are considered to be neither transferable nor subject to seizure; moreover, the parties interested shall only receive the capital when they quit the works, and only at the expiration of three months after they have ceased to work. But in case of marriage, an important purchase, or other major consideration the capital may be handed to them.

Every member of the staff of the establishment who participates shall, whenever possible, be a member of the "Mutual Aid Society of Pontarlier." Their entrance fees and subscriptions shall be paid

monthly out of the sum coming to each of them. Those who, from some cause or other, cannot become members of the society, may in case of sickness, and should they desire it, have their doctor's fees and medicines paid for by the firm, but the expenses so incurred will be deducted from the share due to them.

Art. X.—In case of death the amount of the savings account shall immediately be paid to the heirs.

Art. XI.—The working day is to be of 10 hours, commencing all the year round at 7 A.M. and finishing at 6 P.M., with one hour of rest from noon till 1 P.M. Overtime shall be paid at the rate of 20 per cent. more than the usual price per hour.

Art. XII.—It is formally prohibited to every employé, workman or woman, or apprentice to help in work done in rival establishments. Smoking is also strictly prohibited during work time.

This prohibition is especially applied to apprentices, who shall neither in the workshops nor when on errands use tobacco. On the third remonstrance made to them on this subject these apprentices will be sent home to their parents.

Art. XIII.—The present regulations shall be in force for a term of five years.

APPENDIX M.

INDUSTRIAL, Commercial, Financial, and Agricultural Establishments in which the Staff of Employés participate in the Profits.

(NOTE.—The sign * represents the character of the participation.)

Date of Foundation of Participation.	Names of Establishments.	Fixed proportion.	Joint-ownership by Shares or Paris.	Control of Accounts.	Mode of Payment.	
					In Cash.	By Benefits Societies.
1842	Leclair, Painting Contractor, Paris, now a co-operative society ...	*	*	*	*	*
1843	Laroché-Joubert and Co., Co-operative Papermakers, now a co-operative society, Angoulême ...	*	*	*	*	*
1844	Orléans Railway Company ...	*	*	*	*	*
An. III.	National Printing Office, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1846	Linen Trades Agency, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1848	Debernay and Co., Type Founders, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1848	Dupont, Paul, Printers, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1848	Gaidan, Bankers, Nîmes ...	*	*	*	*	*
1850	General Insurance Company, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1853	Phoenix Insurance Company, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1854	Union Life and Fire Insurance Company, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1854	J. Chagot and Co., Miners at Blanzay ...	*	*	*	*	*
1855	National Insurance Company, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1858	La France Insurance Company, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1865	Suez Canal Company, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1866	Brière, L., Printer, Rouen ...	*	*	*	*	*
1868	Renard, Villette and Bunand, Dyers, Lyons ...	*	*	*	*	*
1870	Society of Woollen Fabrics of the Vosges, at Thillot and Trougemont ...	*	*	*	*	*
1871	Pernod, Distiller, Pontarlier (Doubs) ...	*	*	*	*	*
1871	Roland-Gosselin, Stock Broker, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1871	Vernes and Co., Bankers, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1871	Abadie and Co., Papermakers, Thell (Orne) ...	*	*	*	*	*
1872	Aubert, Printer, Versailles ...	*	*	*	*	*
1872	Barbas, Tassart and Balas, Roofing and Plumbers' Work, Paris (late Goffinon) ...	*	*	*	*	*
1872	Chaix, Printer and Publisher, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1872	Gaget, Pérignon and Co., Plumbers and Art Copper Workers, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1872	Godchaux and Co., Printers and Publishers, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1872	Hanappier, Wholesale Wine Merchant, Bordeaux ...	*	*	*	*	*
1872	The Eagle Insurance Company, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1872	The Sun Insurance Company, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1872	Society of Colouring Matters and Chemical Products of St. Denis ...	*	*	*	*	*
1874	Mame and Son, Printers and Publishers, Tours ...	*	*	*	*	*
1874	Masson, Publisher, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1875	Comptoir d'Escompte, Rouen ...	*	*	*	*	*
1875	Oisel Spinning Mills (Seine Inférieure) ...	*	*	*	*	*
1875	L'Urbaine Insurance Company, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1876	Plassard, Morin, Filod and Co. (late Boncleant), (Magasins du Bon-Marché), Paris, now a co-operative society ...	*	*	*	*	*
1876	L'Abeille (The Bee) Insurance Company, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1877	Besseilèvre, Chintz and Calico Printer, Maromme (Seine Inférieure) ...	*	*	*	*	*
1877	Dequenue and Co. (late Godin), Guise (Aisne), now a co-operative society ...	*	*	*	*	*
1877	Sautter, Lemonnier and Co., Electricians, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1879	Buttner-Thierry, Lithographic Printer, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1880	Bleaching and Dye Works of Thaon (Vosges) ...	*	*	*	*	*
1880	Caillard Brothers, Mechanical Engineers, Havre ...	*	*	*	*	*
1880	The Domain of Château-Montrose, Médoc ...	*	*	*	*	*
1880	The Society of Dépôts and Comptes Courants, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1880	The Linen Society of Finistère, Landerneau ...	*	*	*	*	*
1881	Caillotte, Master Mason, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*
1881	Lefranc and Co., Printers' Ink Makers, Paris ...	*	*	*	*	*

INDUSTRIAL, Commercial, Financial, and Agricultural Establishments in which the Staff of Employés participate in the Profits—continued.

Dates of Foundation of Participation.	Names of Establishments.	Fixed proportion.	Joint-ownership by Shares, or Paris.	Control of Accounts.	Mode of Payment.	
					In Cash.	By Benefit Societies.
1881	Plat, Founder-Engineer, Paris	...	...	...	...	*
1882	Dognin and Co., Tulle and Lace Makers, Lyons ...	...	...	...	...	...
1882	Moutier, Wholesale Locksmith, St. Germain-en-Laye...	*	...	*	...	...
1882	Moullot, Printer, Marseilles...	...	...	...	...	...
1883	The Fives-Lille Company, Nord	*	...	...	...	...
1883	Gilon, Master Locksmith, Paris	*	...	...	...	...
1883	Society of Factories at Mazières (Cher)	...	...	...	...	...
1884	Bourdoux and Co., Industrial Society of Corrèze, Paris	*	...	...	...	...
1884	Gounouilhon, Printer, Bordeaux	*	...	...	...	...
1885	Baillie-Lemaire, Opera Glass and Telescope Maker, Paris ...	...	...	...	...	...
1885	Lecour and Co., Master Joiner, Paris	*	...	...	...	...
1885	Lombart, Chocolate Manufacturer, Paris	...	...	...	...	...
1886	Muzet and Delalonde, Master Mason, Paris	*	...	...	...	...
1885	Roux and Co., Tangye's Steam Engine Constructors, Paris ...	...	...	...	...	...
1885	Sannier, Master Painter, Paris	*	...	...	...	...
1886	Count Lariboisière, Agricultural Enterprise at Mont-horin (Ile-et-Vilaine)	...	...	...	...	...
1886	Monduit, Roofing Contractor, Paris	*	...	...	...	...
1886	Félix, Dressmaking Establishment, Paris	...	...	...	...	...
1887	Montorier, Printer, Paris	*	...	...	...	...
1887	Nayrolles, late Cateau, Embroidery Works, Paris ...	*	...	...	...	...
1887	Thullier Brothers, Contractors for Roofing and Plumbers' Work, Paris	*	...	...	...	...
1888	Bonriot-Pouget, Boot Upper Manufacturer, Vallon (Ardèche)	...	...	...	...	...
1889	La Foncière Insurance Company, Paris	...	...	...	...	...
1890	Boivin, Gimp Manufacturer, Paris	...	...	...	...	...
1890	Broquart, Looking Glass Maker, Bordeaux	...	...	...	...	...
1890	La Providence Insurance Company, Paris	*	...	...	...	...
1882	Pommery, Son, and Co., Champagne Merchants, Reims	...	...	...	...	...
	La Compagnie Générale Transatlantique, Paris ...	...	...	...	...	...
	Ducher, late Gerbeaud, Tailor and Uniform Maker, Paris ...	...	...	...	...	...
	Gillet and Sons, Silk Dyers, Lyons	...	...	...	...	...
	Peugeot Brothers, Wholesale Ironmongers, Valentigney (Doubs)	...	...	...	...	...
	Piquet and Co., Workshops for Mechanical Constructions, Lyons	*	...	...	...	...
	Rivoirre and Carret, Macaroni Makers, Lyons	...	...	...	...	...
	Bolt-Foundries of Bogny-Braux (Ardennes)	...	...	...	...	...
AN. XI.	La Comédie Française, Paris	*	...	...	...	...
	Cusenier, Distiller, Paris	...	...	...	...	...
	Fauquet, O., Spinner, Cables (Eure)	...	...	...	...	...
	Battier, Wholesale Grocer, St. Etienne, Loire ...	...	...	...	...	...
	Gaëllighting Company for the Towns of Mans, Vendôme, and Vannes	...	...	...	...	...
1890	Sachs, Chemical Manure, Aubervilliers (Seine) ...	...	...	...	...	...
	Gaudineau, La Flèche	...	...	...	...	...
	Janvier, senior and junior, Mans	...	...	...	...	...
1891	Co-operative Society of the Employés of Solvay and Co., Dombasle (Meurthe-et-Moselle)	*	...	...	...	...

APPENDIX N.

COUNCIL OF PRUD'HOMMES FOR CHEMICAL PRODUCTS.

Special Committee or Committee of Conciliation.

Paris, _____ 189 . .

The Secretary of the Council

To Mr. _____

You are hereby given notice to appear before the Special Committee (or Committee of Conciliation) of the Council of Prud'homes at the Court of the Tribunal of Commerce and Councils of Prud'homes at Paris, the _____ day of _____, 189 , at half past one o'clock (default to be pronounced on the case being called), to conciliate with Mr. _____

upon the difference existing between you.

The Secretary,
(Signature.)

No. _____.

* * * You are requested to produce all documents relating to the dispute.

(Form of Roll of Cases submitted to the Special Committee of Conciliation.)

Number.	Names of Parties.	Object of the Application.	Progress of Case.

COUNCIL OF PRUD'HOMMES OF THE DEPARTMENT OF THE SEINE
FOR CHEMICAL PRODUCTS.

*Extract from the Minutes of the Special Committee of Conciliation
of the Council of Prud'hommes of the Department of the Seine,
for the Industry of Chemical Products.*

No. _____.

Sitting of _____ 189 .

Between _____

_____ Plaintiff,

and _____

_____ Defendant.

The Special Committee not having been able to conciliate the
parties on a demand for payment of _____

*the case has been referred to the General Committee Meeting of
Tuesday the _____ day of _____ 189 .

(Signed)

Secretary.

* _____

* Here follows space for the summary report.

Committee of Conciliation of _____

Prud'hommes in attendance

Messrs. _____

Number.	Names of Parties.	Statement of the Case.	Decision.

DECREE of March 8, 1890.

*Council of Prud'hommes of the Metal Trade and Various Industries
in connection therewith.*

1st Category.—4 Employers, 4 Workmen.

This category is composed of 123 trades, viz.:—Founders and manufacturers of steel, iron, copper, lead, zinc, tin, and pewter, of coach, railway waggon, and tramcar builders, engine and machine constructors, velocipede manufacturers, contractors for naval and other constructions, agricultural and other implements, and tool makers and all minor trades connected therewith.

2nd Category.—2 Employers, 2 Workmen.

Composed of 63 trades, viz.:—Metal polishers, jewellers, gold and silversmiths, mounters and setters of jewels, gold, silver, and electro-plate manufacturers, designers, modellers, and engravers, lapidaries, chain, ornament, and bead makers, &c., and the trades connected with same.

3rd Category.—2 Employers, 2 Workmen.

Composed of 61 trades, viz.:—Musical, mathematical, and scientific instrument makers; instruments for telegraphy and telephony; optical, acoustic, and photographic instrument and apparatus makers; watch and clock-face and hand and pendulum makers; clockmakers, bell and gong manufacturers; piano makers, organ builders, sewing machine makers, &c., and trades in connection therewith.

4th Category.—2 Employers, 2 Workmen.

Composed of 43 trades, viz.:—Manufacturers of hardware and household utensils in iron, copper, brass, &c.; zinc and tinplate workers; lamp and lantern makers, and trades relating thereto.

5th Category.—2 Employers, 2 Workmen.

Composed of 31 trades, viz.:—Cutlery, fire-arms, swords, and other weapon manufacturers; helmet and cartridge-box and case makers; surgical instrument makers; and makers of steel and other tools for armourers, &c.

6th Category.—3 Employers, 3 Workmen.

Composed of 49 trades, viz.:—Manufacturers of articles in metal, wood, ivory, bone, shell, bamboo, and straw; basket makers; and brush, fan, box, trunk, toy, doll, and racket makers, &c.

*Council of Prud'hommes of Textile Fabrics and Trades in connection with same.**1st Category.—3 Employers, 3 Workmen.*

Composed of 140 trades, viz.:—Spinners, weavers, silk spinners, embroiderers, linen, woollen, cotton, silk, and velvet manufacturers, ribbon makers, shawl and carpet weavers, haberdashers, canvas, tarpaulin, and sail-cloth makers, cord, rope, and cable makers, wool and hair carders, dressers of textile fabrics, fullers, calenderers, &c.

2nd Category.—3 Employers, 3 Workmen.

Composed of 31 trades, viz.:—Dress and shirt cutters and makers; tie and cravat makers; lace, gimp, and trimming and fringe makers; sack and bag makers; linendrapers, mercers, &c.

3rd Category.—3 Employers, 3 Workmen.

Composed of 30 trades, viz.:—Harness, saddle, and bridle makers; strap, belt, and whip makers; military equipment makers; boot, shoe, and slipper makers; gloves, purse, pocket-book, and folio makers; and the leather trade generally.

4th Category.—4 Employers, 4 Workmen.

Composed of 43 trades, viz.:—Felt, straw, and silk hat makers; feather dressers and dealers; furriers, artificial flower makers, designers and modellers; straw, felt, fur, and skin dressers, &c.

5th Category.—3 Employers, 3 Workmen.

Composed of 13 trades, viz.:—Men's and women's clothiers, costumiers, breeches makers, tailors, and manufacturers of lay figures, dummies, &c.

Council of Prud'hommes for Chemical Products and Trades connected with same.

1st Category.—3 Employers, 3 Workmen.

Besides chemists, druggists, and apothecaries, this category, which is composed of over 180 trades, comprises the following, viz.:—Match manufacturers, artificers, asphalt manufacturers, balloon makers, dyers, cleaners, indiarubber, gutta-percha, and celluloid manufacturers, candle makers, herbalists, drysalters, naturalists, paper stainers, perfumers, tobacco manufacturers, varnish, paint, and colour makers, lead-pencil makers, and manufacturers of mineral waters, ink, animal and chemical manures gas, &c., oil refiners, &c.

2nd Category.—5 Employers, 5 Workmen.

Composed of 47 trades, viz.:—Alcohol distillers, starch makers, millers, corn and flour dealers, seedsmen; bakers and pastrycooks; brewers; wine merchants, coffee and chocolate dealers and manufacturers, milkmen, cheese and margarine makers, ice dealers, purveyors of food and articles of consumption, coopers, basket makers, packers, and trades connected with or relating to the same.

3rd Category.—4 Employers, 4 Workmen.

Composed of 72 trades, viz.:—Bill printers and posters, playing card makers; card and cardboard box makers; stationers and printers, chromolithography, engravings, prints, photographs, &c.; account-book makers, printers, typefounders, compositors, lithographic writers, wood and metal block engravers, bookbinders, lithographic stone dealers, &c., and all trades connected with the above.

4th Category.—2 Employers, 2 Workmen.

Composed of 40 trades, viz.:—Glass, china, and porcelain makers; potters; makers of stone and ceramic ware; designers, decorators, painters, gilders, engravers, modellers; glass blowers and cutters; looking-glass makers, enamellers and polishers, pipe makers, &c.

5th Category.—2 Employers, 2 Workmen.

Composed of 43 trades, viz.:—Skin dressers, cat-gut and cord makers, curriers, tanners, leather dressers, parchment makers, linoleum and floor-cloth manufacturers, painters and varnishers, &c.

*Council of Prud'hommes of the Building Trade and Industries
connected therewith.*

1st Category.—2 Employers, 2 Workmen.

Composed of 25 trades, viz. :—Gas-fitters, locksmiths, iron girder and platform layers, makers of builders' iron work (door and window frames), locks, bolts, handles, &c., iron shutters, &c., smiths, plumbers, bell-hangers, &c.

2nd Category.—2 Employers, 2 Workmen.

Zinc and lead founders and fitters, bricklayers, masons, furnace flue and factory chimney builders, roofers, tilers, slaters, stove makers, sweeps, &c.

2nd Category (1st Section).—2 Employers, 2 Workmen.

Window-frame and door makers, ladder makers, blind and shutter makers, joiners, moulders, floor-layers, balustrade makers, wooden shovel makers, &c.

3rd Category (2nd Section).—2 Employers, 2 Workmen.

Billiard table makers, and accessories in wood and ivory, cage and trap makers, chair makers, wood carvers and cutters, cabinet makers, gilders, polishers, turners; rustic and garden seat makers, wooden vessel makers, frame makers, &c.

4th Category.—2 Employers, 2 Workmen.

Composed of 15 trades, viz. :—Boat builders, stowers, sawyers, splitters and hewers of wood, house and ship's carpenters, scaffold builders, lightermen, stair builders, &c.

5th Category.—4 Employers, 4 Workmen.

Composed of 46 trades, viz. :—Building contractors, journeymen, masons, bricklayers, tilers, tilemakers, stone merchants, cutters and turners, &c.

6th Category.—2 Employers, 2 Workmen.

Composed of 13 trades, viz. :—Whitewashers, paperers, sign painters and gilders, house painters and decorators, glaziers, painted window designers, painters, makers and fitters, &c.

7th Category.—2 Employers, 2 Workmen.

Composed of 14 trades, viz. :—Asphalt layers, contractors for paving, drain building, and for stone, wood, and asphalt work, well sinkers, artesian well borers, navvies, &c.

8th Category.—2 Employers, 2 Workmen.

Composed of 23 trades, viz. :—Dealers in roofing slates, concrete makers, brick, tile, pipe, and tube makers for house and sewer work, stone breakers, plasterers, mosaic and cement layers, quarrymen, lime burners, plaster and cement makers, moulders in plaster, plaster ornament dealers; gravel, sand, and lime dealers, &c.

9th Category.—2 Employers, 2 Workmen.

Stucco ornament makers; marble sculptors, turners, and polishers; mill and grindstone makers; contractors for tombstones, &c., and all trades in stone, marble, stucco, &c.

BILL Proposed and Adopted by Chamber of Deputies relating to Councils of Prud'hommes.

Appendix to the Official Report of the Sitting of March 31, 1892.

Provisions of Bill.

At the sitting of March 17, 1892, the Chamber of Deputies adopted, with certain modifications, a proposed law relating to Councils of Prud'hommes.

We have nothing to add to the provisions set forth in the proposed Law presented to the Chamber of Deputies, and numbered 227, to which we beg you to give your attention.

The President of the French Republic decrees that the Law, the provisions of which are hereby given, shall be laid before the Senate by the Minister of Commerce and Industry and the Chancellor, Minister of Justice and Public Worship, both charged with the recital of its provisions and to take part in the discussion.

Proposed Law.

SECTION I.

Powers.—The institution and organisation of Councils of Prud'hommes.

Art. I.—Councils of Prud'hommes are instituted for the purpose of settling by arbitration the disputes arising in matters

of contracts for the hire of labour between employers and workmen, salaried clerks, and other employés.

They are also competent to consider and advise upon differences arising between workmen on labour questions. They decide, without right of appeal, upon all matters not exceeding the sum of 500 fr., and with right of appeal, upon whatever may be the amount of the claim, in cases which have failed to receive an amicable settlement.

Nevertheless, they cannot take cognizance of actions for damages brought on account of accidents to employés, workmen, or apprentices.

Moreover, they exercise the powers conferred on them by virtue of special legislation.

Art. II.—Councils of Prud'hommes are instituted by decrees issued in the form of regulations of public administration, according to opinions given by Chambers of Commerce, or Consulting Chambers of Arts and Manufactures, in places where the importance of the trade indicates the necessity.

The institution of Councils of Prud'hommes is lawful when the request has been made by the Municipal Council of the district where it is intended to be established, accompanied by the recommendation of the General Council of the Department and that of the Municipal Councils of the districts included in the proposed quarter.

Art. III.—The decree of institution shall decide the qualifications of the Council, the number of categories among which are classed the trades and professions submitted to its jurisdiction, and the number of councillors told off for each category in such manner that the total number of the members of the Council shall be equal, and not less than 16.

Art. IV.—The councillors are elected for a term of six years. They are to be re-elected, one-half at a time, every three years, but they remain in office until their successors are elected.

Art. V.—The following are workmen electors:—

1. Workmen, assistants, clerks, travellers, accountants, foremen, messengers, handy men and porters, labourers, workmen and clerks employed by transport agencies, and generally all salaried employés engaged in every kind of commerce, trade, and agriculture, on the condition of being entered on the roll of political electors.

2. Women who are French citizens, of the full age of 21 years and upwards, employed in one of the occupations comprised in the foregoing paragraph, and who have not incurred any of the penalties threatened by Art. XV. of the Decree of February 2, 1852.

The following are master electors:—

1. Masters who employ in their business one or more workmen or clerks, foremen, partners in companies, managers or directors invested with powers over a factory, manufacture, banking or commercial establishment, workshop, and, generally speaking, any kind of business; directors and engineers of transport agencies, concessionnaires, and those who carry on mining operations; members of boards of directors, engineers of works, and heads of depart-

ments; and directors of mining operations, inspectors and managers of mines; on the condition of being entered on the roll of political electors.

2. Women who are French citizens, of the full age of 21 years and upwards, personally engaged in one of the occupations mentioned in the foregoing paragraph, and who have not incurred any of the penalties provided by Art. XV. of the Decree of February 2, 1852.

On the list of electors for Councils of Prud'hommes are also entered the former members of one of the two categories above-mentioned who have retired from their occupation or trade for less than 10 years, and who have not incurred any of the penalties provided by Art. XV. of the Decree of February 2, 1852.

Women who are called upon to elect councillors must furnish proof of residence, during six months at least, in the district of the Council at the time the electoral lists are drawn up.

Art. VI.—Men of 25 years of age, able to read and write, are eligible as electors.

Art. VII.—Councils of Prud'hommes are composed of an equal number of each class of workmen and employers. There shall be at least two employers and two workmen of each class.

Art. VIII.—The workmen are elected by workmen, and employers by employers, at two distinct meetings, each to be presided over by the Justice of the Peace or his deputy. In cases where several polling places are opened for the facility of voting, the Prefect may appoint, by decree to that effect, a mayor, or deputy-mayor, to preside at one or more of such polling places.

Art. IX.—The elections take place by "*scrutin de liste*" (balloting by a list of persons), and according to the category to which the respective electors belong. On the first ballot an absolute majority of the votes given is necessary. On the second ballot the relative majority will be sufficient. In case of an equal number of votes on the second ballot the elder candidate is declared to be elected.

Art. X.—Every year, during the 15 days following the revision of the electoral lists, the mayor of each district of the province, assisted by two electors, one workman, and one employer, shall enter, on two different lists, the names and occupations of the workmen and employers who are electors. These two lists are sent to the Prefect, who draws up and publishes by decree the list of each class of electors.

Art. XI.—By the method of triennial renewal, half the number of councillors, workmen, or employers of each class shall retire.

In each of these classes the names of the councillors who are to be replaced the first time shall be drawn for.

Retiring councillors are re-eligible.

Art. XII.—When elections are to take place the Prefect gives at least 20 days' notice to the electors, and informs them of the date and place of meeting, and the hours for opening and closing the poll. The elections are to be held on a Sunday or holiday. The second ballot shall be made one week after the first.

Art. XIII.—The lists are kept at the office of the secretary of

the Council of Prud'hommes, and shall be communicated to anyone who asks for them, or who may wish to make a copy thereof.

The lists may be challenged during 15 days following the date on which they were deposited in the secretary's office. Such challenge is notified to the Justice of the Peace for the district, inquired into, and decided upon in accordance with Arts. 5 and 6 of the Law of December 8, 1883, on Consular elections.

Rectifications are to be made by virtue of the provisions of Art. 7 of the said Law.

The regulations established by Arts. 13, 18 to 25, and 26, paragraphs 1, 3, 27 to 29 of the Law of April 5, 1884, on municipal elections, apply to electoral operations respecting Councils of Prud'hommes.

During the three days succeeding the reception of the official report of the elections the Prefect transmits certified copies of the same to the Procurator-General and to the secretary of the Council of Prud'hommes. Protestations against the elections are made, inquired into, and decided upon in the manner prescribed by Art. 11, paragraphs 5, 6, and 7, and Art. 12 of the Law of December 8, 1883.

Art. XIV.—During the 15 days succeeding the election, or, in case of dispute, during the 15 days succeeding the final decision thereon, the Prefect shall install the councillors who have been elected.

At the time of their installation the councillors shall each take, before the Prefect, the following oath:—"I swear to fulfil my duties with zeal and integrity."

Art. XV.—In case one or more vacancies occur in the Council from death, resignation, cancelling of the first elections, changes of conditions or otherwise, complementary elections shall take place within one month from the date of the occurrence necessitating the same, unless not more than three months have to elapse between such occurrence and the date of the next triennial renewal.

Every member elected under these conditions only remains in office during the remainder of the term for which his predecessor was elected.

Art. XVI.—Should necessity arise for complementary elections, either on account of the original elections not having produced satisfactory results for the formation or completion of the Council, or on account of the refusal by one or more councillors to accept office, or because of their resignation, or from their having ceased to be in office by the application of Art. XLI.; and should one of these circumstances arise, the vacancy thus occurring shall not be filled up until the next triennial renewal, but the Council shall continue to act, whatever may be the class of members regularly elected or duly exercising their authority, provided that their number equals at least one-half of the total number of which it is composed.

The same rule applies in cases where one or more elections have been annulled on account of the ineligibility of those elected.

Art. XVII.—The Council assembled in general meeting, and presided over by its senior member, elects among their number, by ballot, and on the absolute majority of the members present, a president and vice-president.

If two ballotings show that neither of the candidates has obtained an absolute majority of votes of the members present, and if at the third ballot there should be an equal number of votes for each candidate, the councillor who has been for the longest period in office shall be elected. If both the candidates have served for one and the same period of time, the preference shall be given to the senior in age.

The same rule applies with regard to the formation of a new Council.

Art. XVIII.—When the president has been chosen from among the workmen, the vice-president can only be chosen from among the employers, and vice versa.

By exception, in the case provided for by Art. XVI., the president and vice-president may both be chosen among workmen or employers should the Council happen to be composed of one only of these classes, masters or men.

Objections to the election of members of the committee are submitted to the Court of Appeal.

Art. XIX.—The president and vice-president are elected for a term of one year. They are re-eligible.

They remain in office until their successors are appointed.

Art. XX.—Councils of Prud'hommes comprise :—

1. A committee of conciliation.
2. A committee of judgment.

Art. XXI.—The committee of conciliation is composed of two councillors—one workman and one employer. The presidency belongs alternately to one and the other, according to the rotation provided for by the special regulations of each Council. Lots are drawn to decide which of them shall take the chair.

By exception, and in the cases provided for by Art. XVI., both members of the committee may be chosen from among workmen or employers if the Council happens to be composed of one class only.

Art. XXII.—Meetings of the committee of conciliation are held once a week; they are not public.

Art. XXIII.—The committee of judgment is composed (not including the president or vice-president) of an equal number of employers and workmen. There must be, at least, two of each class.

By exception, in the cases provided for by Art. XVI., the committee of judgment may validly deliberate if composed of an uneven number, five, at least, being present, even though the respective numbers of workmen and employers present may not be equal one to the other.

The decisions of the committee of judgment are determined by an absolute majority of the members present.

The sittings of the committee of judgment are public. Should

the discussions be of such a nature as to give rise to scandal, the president may order the doors to be closed after having referred to the opinion of the committee.

The judgment must always be pronounced publicly.

Art. XXIV.—A secretary shall be appointed, at a general meeting, for each Council, on the absolute majority of votes of the members present.

He may be dismissed at any time, but in such case the resolution to that effect must be signed by two-thirds of the councillors.

The secretary is present at, and writes the minutes of, the proceedings of the committees of conciliation and judgment.

SECTION II.

Of Procedure before Councils of Prud'hommes.

Art. XXV.—Every one who comes within the jurisdiction of, and is called before, the Council of Prud'hommes, is bound, on an ordinary notice from the secretary, sent through the post and registered, to present himself in person on the day and hour fixed.

He cannot name anyone to represent him before the committee of arbitration except in case of his absence from home or sickness. Under these circumstances only he may be represented by a relation or someone of the same trade as himself, and, like himself, a workman or employer, who shall produce the secretary's notice countersigned by the party to whom it is addressed.

The latter's signature must be legalised in the usual manner.

Heads of industrial establishments may be represented by their managers or by an employé duly empowered to that effect.

The parties cannot give notice of their defence.

Art. XXVI.—The notice must specify the day, month, and year, the name and profession of the applicant, a summary state of the case, and the day and hour of appearance.

It may be sent by the applicant to the defendant's domicile, or transmitted through the post by the care of the secretary.

Art. XXVII.—Parties may at all times voluntarily present themselves before the committee of conciliation, and in such case the matter is proceeded with as if a formal application had been previously made by them.

If on the day named in the secretary's notice the applicant fails to appear, the case is struck off the list, but it may come in again after a week's interval.

Art. XXVIII.—If the defendant does not appear or if an understanding cannot be come to, the case is adjourned to the next meeting of the committee of judgment. The secretary gives notice to the parties by registered letter.

Art. XXIX.—On the day appointed by such notice the parties must appear in person before the committee of judgment.

In cases of sickness or absence they may be represented in the manner prescribed by Art. XXV.

Should either of the parties fail to appear judgment is given by default.

Art. XXX.—Judgments of Councils of Prud'hommes are final and without appeal when the amount claimed does not exceed the principal sum of 500 fr.

Art. XXXI.—If the claim exceeds 500 fr. appeal may be made to the Civil Tribunal against the decisions of the Council of Prud'hommes. The appeal to the Civil Tribunal shall be inquired into and decided upon, as in commercial cases, without the assistance of an "avoué" (solicitor) being obligatory.

Documents relating to procedure must be engrossed on stamp, and the cost of registration placed to the debit.

The Civil Tribunal shall deliver judgment within three months of the date of lodging the appeal.

Art. XXXII.—Judgments rendered by Councils of Prud'hommes can be contested by suing under a writ for overstepping of due power. The appeal must be lodged at latest within three months of the date of notice of judgment by a declaration lodged at the Registry of the Tribunal, and notified within the week under pain of the case falling through.

Within a fortnight of the notification the documents must be sent to the Court of Cassation. No sum shall be paid into Court, nor shall the assistance of counsel be obligatory.

The Court of Cassation shall deliver judgment within a month of the reception of the documents.

Art. XXXIII.—In cases of absence, hindrance, or refusal of the husband's authorisation, the Council may allow a married woman to apply for conciliation and to appear as applicant or defendant before it.

Art. XXXIV.—Minors who cannot be assisted by their father or guardian are provided by the Council with a guardian *ad hoc* chosen among its members, who shall perform under such special circumstances the duties of a guardian.

Art. XXXV.—The members of a Council of Prud'hommes can be challenged:—

(1) When they have a personal interest in the matter at issue.

(2) When they are relatives by blood or marriage of one of the parties up to the degree of cousin-germain inclusively.

(3) If in the year preceding the challenge criminal proceedings have been taken between them and one of the parties or his or her wife or husband or relatives or allies in line direct.

(4) If a civil action be pending between them and one of the parties or the wife or husband of either of them.

(5) If they have given a written opinion in the matter.

(6) If they are the employers or workmen of one of the parties in the case.

The party who desires to challenge a councillor is bound to make the challenge and explain its motives by means of a declara-

tion bearing his signature, and delivered by him to the secretary of the Council, for which a receipt shall be given to him.

Art. XXXVI.—The duties of councillors are absolutely gratuitous with regard to the parties. The councillors cannot claim any fee for any of the duties performed by them.

Art. XXXVII.—All documents, judgments, and acts required for the execution thereof must be engrossed on paper stamped according to Art. 70 of the Law of 22 Frimaire, An VII., and the cost of registration placed to the debit.

Mention of the registration is stamped on the original document at the time.

The foregoing provisions are applicable to cases carried to appeal or before the Court of Cassation.

The party non-suited is condemned in costs payable to the Treasury.

Art. XXXVIII.—The competency of Councils of Prud'hommes is fixed, as regards work done in factories, in the locality where the factory is situate, and as regards work done at home, in the place where the engagement was contracted.

Art. XXXIX.—In urgent cases Councils of Prud'hommes can order such measures to be taken as to them may seem requisite in order to prevent any goods or objects, in respect of which the application has been made, from being seized, removed, or damaged.

Art. XL.—Arts. 5, 7, 10 to 15, 18 to 22, 28, 29, 31 to 43, 46, 47, 54, 55, 452 to 460, 474, and 480 of the Code of Civil Procedure, Arts. 7, 8, 11, 12, and 13 of the Law of May 25, 1838, are applicable to the jurisdiction of councillors in all that is not contrary to the provisions of the present Law.

SECTION III.

Regulations of Councils of Prud'hommes.

Art. XLI.—Every member of a Council of Prud'hommes who, without legitimate reason, and after having been duly notified, shall refuse to render the service he is called upon to perform, shall be dismissed from the Council.

Art. XLII.—The president specifies the refusal to serve in an official report containing the decision of the committee after the councillor has been previously heard upon the matter or duly summoned to appear.

If the Council does not give an opinion within one month of the date of convocation the president shall mention this omission in the official report sent by him to the Prefect.

Art. XLIII.—On the receipt of the official report the dismissal is decreed by the Prefect whether the Council has deliberated or not.

In case of dispute the Minister of Commerce and Industry
(8289)

finally decides the point, with right of appeal to the Council of State on the ground of "ultra vires."

Art. XLIV.—Every member of a Council of Prud'hommes who shall have seriously neglected his duties in the exercise of his office shall be called before the Council to explain the act with which he is charged.

If the Council does not express its opinion within one month of the date of convocation mention shall be made in the official report addressed by the president to the Prefect.

Art. XLV.—The official report is transmitted by the Prefect, together with his opinion thereon, to the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

The following penalties may be pronounced:—

- (1) Censure.
- (2) Suspension for a period not exceeding six months.
- (3) Forfeiture of his office.

Art. XLVI.—Censure and suspension may be pronounced by means of notice given by the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

Forfeiture is pronounced by Ministerial decree.

Art. XLVII.—Every councillor duly elected who declines to be installed, or who has retired by virtue of Art. XII., cannot be re-elected before the expiration of three years from the date of the Prefectural decree.

Art. XLVIII.—Every councillor against whom forfeiture has been pronounced cannot be re-elected for the same duties during six years from the date of the decree of forfeiture.

Art. XLIX.—In case of a charge of prevarication against members of the Council of Prud'hommes proceedings against them shall be taken in the form prescribed with respect to judges by Art. 483 of the Code of Criminal Inquiry.

Art. L.—Arts. 4 and 5 of the Civil Code, Arts. 505 to 507 of the Code of Civil Procedure, and Arts. 126 and 185 of the Penal Code are applicable to members of a Council of Prud'hommes.

Art. LI.—Councils of Prud'hommes may be dissolved by decree delivered on the initiative of the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

In such case the general elections shall take place within one month from the date of the decree of dissolution.

Councils of Prud'hommes may also be suppressed by decree delivered according to the regulations of public administration.

SECTION IV.

General Provisions.

Art. LII.—Every Council of Prud'hommes shall prepare in general meeting regulations for its own management.

These regulations only become varied after they have been approved by the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

Art. LIII.—Councils of Prud'hommes assemble in general meeting whenever the request is made by the superior authority, by one-half their number plus one of the members in active service, or when the president considers it to be necessary.

The official report of each meeting is transmitted within a fortnight by the president to the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

Art. LIV.—Members of Councils of Prud'hommes wear while on duty, either during the sittings or elsewhere, the distinctive badge specified by the Order of November 12, 1828.

Art. LV.—Secretaries to Councils of Prud'hommes are remunerated at the following rates:—

For each notice to appear before the Council (not including postage), 15 c.

For each page of certified copy documents delivered by them containing 20 lines on each page, and 12 syllables in each line, 40 c.

For the certified copy, if required by the party, of the official report stating that the parties could not agree, and which shall mention summarily that they could not come to terms, 80 c.

For the notice by registered letter, 60 c.

The cost of paper, account books, and prepayments shall be paid by the secretary.

The secretary shall receive direct from the parties the fees allowed, including those for certified copies delivered by him.

Art. LVI.—In case the services of process-servers be required they shall receive for notifying a judgment 1 fr. 75 c.

If, at a distance of half a myriametre (10 kiloms.) between their office and the place where the judgment has to be notified, they shall receive 2 fr. per myriametre there and back.

For copies of documents which may be supplied with the copy of judgment they shall receive for each page of certified copy of 20 lines to the page, and 12 syllables to the line 20 c.

Art. LVII.—Witnesses giving evidence, who ask for it, are allowed by the Council of Prud'hommes 3 fr. as compensation for loss of time.

Witnesses who reside out of the district at a distance of more than $2\frac{1}{2}$ myriametres and less than 5 myriametres are allowed 6 fr. for every myriametre or fraction thereof; beyond 5 myriametres they receive 6 fr. for every 5 myriametres or fractions of that distance.

Art. LVIII.—Every secretary or huissier (process server or usher) employed by the Councils of Prud'hommes proved to have charged a higher rate than that allowed them is punished for extortion.

SECTION V.

Expenses of Councils of Prud'hommes.

Art. LIX.—The premises required by Councils of Prud'hommes are to be provided by the town where the Council is established.

Art. LX.—The charges obligatory upon the districts comprised in the jurisdiction of a Council of Prud'hommes are the following:—

- (1) Expenses of founding the Council.
- (2) Purchase of badges.
- (3) Fuel, &c.
- (4) Lighting and petty expenses.
- (5) Costs of elections.

Art. LXI.—The president of each Council of Prud'hommes shall, during the month of December, each year submit for the approval of the Prefect of the Department the accounts of expenditure set forth in the preceding article.

SECTION VI.

Councils of Prud'hommes in Algeria and Colonies.

Art. LXII.—The provisions of the present law are applicable with the following modifications in Algeria:—

Art. LXIII.—Electors of 25 years of age able to read and write in the French language are eligible.

Art. LXIV.—In districts where the importance of the Mussulman population demands it, Councils of Prud'hommes shall include Mussulman assessors, mention of which shall be set forth in the articles of establishment.

The Mussulman assessors, employers, and workmen alike shall always be of an equal number in each class.

Art. LXV.—In every instance where one or more Mussulmans not enjoying the rights of French citizens appear, the committees of conciliation and judgment shall include two Mussulman assessors, one employer, and one workman, with right to speak but not to vote.

Art. LXVI.—Mussulman councillor-assessors are elected by Mussulmans not enjoying the rights of French citizens who are inscribed on the municipal electoral lists and fulfilling the conditions provided in Art. V. of the present Law.

The list of electors is drawn up separately.

Art. LXVII.—Mussulman councillor-assessors are elected in the same manner as other councillors. They are subjected to the same conditions of eligibility; but, as far as relates to assessorship, it is enough for the candidates to be able to speak the French language if they are able to read and write in their native tongue.

They cannot be members of committee, but they take part in its nomination in the same manner as the other members.

Art. LXVIII.—Interpreters may be attached to Councils of Prud'hommes in Algeria; they shall be appointed in the same manner as secretaries, but they must take the professional oath before commencing their duties.

Their salary is fixed by Prefectoral decision.

Art. LXIX.—Mussulman councillor-assessors are to be renewed by half their number every three years as provided by Art. XI.

Art. LXX.—The present Law is applicable to the colonies of Guadeloupe, Martinique, and Réunion.

SECTION VII

Special Provisions.

Art. LXXI.—Repeal is made:—

(1) Arts. 1 to 9, 29, and following of the Law of March 18, 1806.

(2) The Decree of June 11, 1809.

(3) " " " August 3, 1810.

(4) The Laws of June 27 and May 6, 1848.

(5) " Law of August 7, 1850.

(6) " " " June 1, 1853.

(7) Art. XV. of the Law of June 22, 1854.

(8) The Law of June 4, 1864.

(9) " " " February 7, 1880.

(10) " " " February 23, 1881.

(11) " " " November 24, 1883.

(12) " " " December 10, 1884.

And generally of all provisions contrary to the present Law.

SECTION VIII.

Temporary Provisions.

Art. LXXII.—Within six months of the promulgation of the present Law general elections for all members of all Councils of Prud'hommes shall be held.

Done at Paris this 31st March, 1892.

(Signed) CARNOT,
President of the French Republic.

(Signed) JULES ROCHE,
Minister of Commerce and Industry.

(Signed) L. RICARD,
Chancellor, Minister of Justice and Public
Worship.

STATEMENT of Work done by the Council of Prud'hommes
of Textile Fabrics during the Year 1890.

Cases.	Number.	Number.
SPECIAL COMMITTEE.		
Cases still to be conciliated on January 1, 1890 ..	16	3,112
Number of cases submitted to the Special Committee	3,096	
Cases conciliated by the Special Committee ..	1,339	3,112
Cases withdrawn by the parties before the Committee had decided thereon ..	303	
Cases not conciliated by the Special Committee and referred to the General Committee ..	1,124	
Cases not conciliated by the Special Committee, but not referred to the General Committee ..	320	
Cases unsettled on December 31, 1890 ..	26	
GENERAL COMMITTEE.		
Cases not decided on January 1, 1890 ..	18	1,142
„ referred to the General Committee ..	1,124	
„ withdrawn before judgment given ..	569	1,142
„ settled by judgment without appeal ..	469	
„ settled by judgment but with right of appeal ..	79	
„ still to be judged on December 31, 1890 ..	25	
CLASS OF CASES.		
Apprenticeships ..	66	3,112
Discharges ..	1,105	
Salaries* ..	1,400	
Spoilt work ..	55	
Certificate books of receipts for weaving ..	486	
Sundry questions ..		

* Under the term "salaries" should be included not only cases relating to salaries properly so-called, but also to settlements of accounts and questions of notices to leave at end of one week, a fortnight, or month.

DETAILED Statement of the Nature of Disputes.

	Number.
Leaving or being absent from the works	4
Fines inflicted	3
Application of tariffs	..
Applications for references	10
Engagements	12
Gifts and gratuities	17
Execution of agreements	52
Examination of work by experts	153
Travelling expenses, removals.. .. .	6
Compensation for slack time	18
" accidents and wounds	..
" sickness	5
Registered work books	..
Materials retained by workmen	12
Implements retained by workmen	4
Observations made in work books	3
Loss of tools	7
" time	50
Price of workmanship	37
Questions of incompetency	9
Claims upon and retention of tools	15
Refusal to work	3
Repayment of advances	4
Retention of clothes	5
Claims upon and retention of work books	14
Signature of work books	17
Work delayed	11
Unfinished work	9
Work by contract or piece-work	6
Total	486

NUMBER of Disputes by Category and Profession.

CATEGORY 1.

	Number.
Tarpaulin and waterproof tent makers	5
Braces	8
Shawls	10
Hairdressers and platt makers.. .. .	156
Bed carders	8
Rope and cord makers.. .. .	17
Tie and cravat makers	35
Lacemakers	26
Embroidery designers	59
Silk and cotton winders	17
White straw makers	10
Textile fabrics	40
Total	391

CATEGORY 2.

	Number.
Stuff dressers	13
Bleachers, ironers	19
Printers of stuffs	21
Window blind makers	7
Total	60

NUMBER of Disputes by Category and Profession—continued.

CATEGORY 3.

	Number.
Wholesale haberdashers	18
Boot and shoe manufacturers	248
Embroidery manufacturers	154
Shirtmakers	41
Clothiers	301
Dressmakers	377
Glovers	15
Linen drapers	76
Trunk makers	15
Purse and pocket book makers	56
Trimming manufacturers	170
Umbrella and parasol mounters	18
Saddle and harness makers	65
Carpet weavers	176
Total	1,730

CATEGORY 4.

	Number.
Hat manufacturers	120
Men's cap manufacturers	19
Total	139

CATEGORY 5.

	Number.
Stay makers	15
Flowers and feathers	99
Milliners	101
Straw hat manufacturers	7
Feather brooms	2
Total	224

CATEGORY 6.

	Number.
Costumiers	12
Breeches makers	30
Vest makers	25
Tailors	501
Total	568

SUMMARY.

	Number.
Category 1	391
" 2	60
" 3	1,730
" 4	184
" 5	224
" 6	568
Total	3,112

(Signed)

President of the Council of Textile Fabrics.

REGULATIONS of the Council of Prud'hommes of the Department
of the Seine for Chemical Products.

Special Committee.

Art. I.—The duties of the special committee consist in conciliating contending parties, and should they not come to terms, to refer them to the general committee.

The special committee is composed of two members, one an employer the other a workman, as far as possible of different industries.

The members of the special committee act in rotation as prescribed by Art. XXX. *infra*.

Art. II.—The special committee shall meet at least three times per week at half-past one o'clock.

Art. III.—The secretary calls each case in the order set down on the roll prepared by him, and according to the date of the notices sent by him to the parties.

Default to appear is proclaimed one hour after the meeting has commenced. The committee may proceed with the enquiry if the parties present themselves during the course of the meeting.

Before judgment by default is proclaimed the committee shall always enquire whether the notices have been duly delivered.

Art. IV.—The sitting of the special committee continues until all the cases on the roll, or those submitted voluntarily by the parties, have been heard.

Art. V.—When a dispute arises on a subject not relating to the profession of either of the prud'hommes in attendance the committee may order the case to be referred to a competent member of the Council of Prud'hommes.

In such case the committee shall deliver, free of charge, an order containing the commission for the prud'homme or arbitrator appointed.

The committee should order cases to be adjourned as rarely as possible on account of the urgent nature of all matters submitted to its decisions.

Order of Meetings.

Art. VI.—The special committee shall be presided over alternately by an employer and a workman in the order of rotation previously settled.

The prud'homme who has been the longest in active service shall preside over the first meeting.

In case those eligible for chairmanship have served for an equal term the elder one shall preside.

Both members may speak with a view of effecting conciliation.

Art. VII.—When both parties have been heard in person the special committee shall leave nothing undone to conciliate them.

It shall require the production of all documents, manufactured articles, or products relating to the case, and shall order all preliminary measures it considers necessary to be taken in order to complete the enquiry according to law.

The special committee shall deliberate before making any proposal of settlement, and after having duly considered the best means of bringing about conciliation, the president in the name of the committee shall express himself in such terms as may induce the parties to agree to the mode of settlement proposed.

It is always advisable to remind the parties that the terms of conciliation proposed by the committee does not in any way prejudice the decision of the general committee should the proposal not be accepted.

Art. VIII.—In case of conciliation the secretary shall draw up from the president's dictation the conditions agreed to by mutual consent, which are read over to the parties, and the president shall urge them to carry out the clauses loyally.

Art. IX.—In case the parties do not agree they are to be referred to the next meeting of the general committee.

The secretary shall draw up an official report which need only contain a summary mention of the refusal to come to terms, but he shall keep a separate account of the respective statements of the parties, the terms of conciliation proposed to them by the committee, and the motives given for refusal.

General Committee.

Art. X.—The general committee is appealed to in all matters which could not be settled by means of conciliation.

Meetings of this committee are to be held at least once a week at half-past one o'clock.

Art. XI.—The general committee shall always be composed of an equal number of prud'hommes, employers, and workmen, exclusive of the president or vice-president.

The committee shall number not less than two employers and two workmen.

Art. XII.—The order of rotation of the general committee is regulated by Art. XXX. *infra*.

Art. XIII.—If on the day appointed by the notice issued by the secretary, or by summons duly served, either of the parties should fail to appear the case shall be judged by default, unless a fresh summons has to be served in case the delay allowed by law for the delivery of the first summons has not been observed.

Order of Meetings.

Art. XIV.—The members appointed to attend shall meet in the Council Chamber half-an-hour before the meeting begins to hear read the report of the cases referred by the special to the general committee.

The council enters the Council Chamber preceded by the president and followed by the secretary. The huissier then presents the committee to the council.

Art. XV.—The huissier calls over the roll of cases prepared by the secretary, in the manner prescribed by Art. III. for the special committee.

Adjourned cases shall be first heard in order of date.

Art. XVI.—As each case is called, the statements and explanations of the parties are heard. The president puts such questions and makes such observations as seem necessary to the enquiry.

No member of the committee shall address the parties without the authorisation of the president.

Art. XVII.—When the case has been heard the committee proceeds to deliberate on the judgment to be given.

The deliberation is secret.

Should one of the members require it the deliberation shall take place in the Council Chamber.

Art. XVIII.—If the committee be not sufficiently enlightened by the debate, it may continue the enquiry at a subsequent meeting or have the case reported on by one of its members, and order such mode of enquiry to be made as may seem necessary in the manner prescribed by law.

Art. XIX.—The secretary shall take note of the statements made by the parties during the debate, so as to make use of them as documents during the deliberation and in drawing up the judgment.

Art. XX.—The president shall keep order during the meetings. He may require, according to circumstances, the attendance of policemen to prevent disturbances likely to trouble the meeting.

Of General Meetings—Their Composition and Objects.

Art. XXI.—The council shall hold general meetings in the Council Chamber:

1. Whenever the president deems it necessary or when a request to that effect has been made by superior authority.

2. On the request of at least eight members duly signed by them and specifying the object.

Two obligatory meetings, at least, shall be held during the year in April and October.

Art. XXII.—Notices shall be sent out by the president at least three days prior to the meeting.

The object of the meeting shall be specified therein as the order of the day.

Art. XXIII.—The decisions of the meeting shall only be deemed valid if the number of members present consists of not less than one-half plus one of those on duty, including the president and vice-president.

All decisions are taken upon the absolute majority of votes of the members present.

Art. XXIV.—The province of the meetings consists in replying to all applications made by superior authority and to examine questions of general interest to the jurisdiction of prud'hommes, such as the uniform method of procedure, the rules of jurisprudence, and the rapid settlement of business.

The meeting shall decide the number of members who are to compose the deputations to accompany the president to public ceremonies or funerals of deceased members.

Art. XXV.—The meeting cannot in any case nor on any pretext take into consideration other subjects than those within its jurisdiction, and can only deliberate upon those set forth in the order of the day.

Art. XXVI.—The secretary of the council shall attend every general meeting to take minutes of the proceedings and draw up the official report.

Order of the Meetings.

Art. XXVII.—The meeting is presided over by the president or vice-president.

The president declares the meeting open half-an-hour later than the time mentioned in the notices. He shall explain its object, authorise those to speak who ask for permission, and declare the discussion to be closed after a vote to that effect has been taken.

The meeting may require the discussion or decision to be adjourned or may name from among its members a committee composed of an equal number of employers and workmen who shall examine the question and report thereon at the adjourned meeting.

The president and vice-president are ex-officio members of such committee.

Art. XXIX.—The official report shall be signed by the president and the secretary.

A copy thereof shall be sent by the president to the Minister of Commerce and Industry and the Colonies.

Duties of the President.

Art. XXX.—The president shall direct the business of the Council. He sees to the execution of the present regulations and the resolutions arrived at in general meetings.

He represents the Council in dealing with the administrative authorities, and in consequence corresponds with them.

Every three months he settles the order of rotation of service on the special and general committees.

He convenes general meetings and shall preside over them and the general committee alternately with the vice-president.

He shall fix and inspect the expenses of the Council and sign the balance sheets thereof, which are to be forwarded to the administrative authorities.

He shall send every year to the Minister of Commerce and Industry and the Colonies, and to the Prefect of the Seine, statistics of the business of the Council, and shall point out to the administration the vacancies which have occurred in the Council.

Art. XXXI.—The duties and prerogatives of the president become those of the vice-president whenever the latter is called upon to replace him.

Of the Secretary and his Clerks.

Art. XXXII.—The secretary shall attend at his office, Sundays and holidays excepted, from 9 a.m. until the close of the meeting, and in any case till 4 p.m.

He shall give at least three days' notice to the members of the Council respecting their attendance on the committees, in the order settled by the president, and, further, shall send them every three months a table of the order of rotation for the ensuing quarter.

He shall deliver to such as apply for them the notices to attend the meeting of the special and general committees, to be delivered by the applicants at the residence of the members, and shall also give to the applicants, free of charge, a note of the day and hour of the hearing.

In case of failure to appear, and by order of the committee, he shall give the necessary authorisation to the huissiers employed by the Council to serve summonses on the parties.

He shall keep an exact list of the cases as prescribed by Arts. III. and XV. of the present regulations.

He shall enter in such list the names of the applicants and defendants, and communicate it to the president of the committee before the meeting takes place.

The lists are to be made in duplicate. The one for the general committee shall further contain a *précis* of the discussions before the special committee.

Art. XXXIII.—He shall attend the meetings of both committees and the general meetings. He is not allowed to speak unless requested to do so by the president.

Art. XXXIV.—He prepares minutes not only of the judgments, but also of the official reports and decisions of the Council. He shall, moreover, keep all such books and registers as the president deems necessary for the proper administration of the Council.

Art. XXXV.—He has custody of the minutes and archives of the Council.

He is not permitted to communicate these documents nor allow copies or extracts to be taken without the authorisation of the president.

Art. XXXVI.—He shall receive and keep at the office all industrial designs and models which have been lodged there as prescribed by law. Before proceeding to draw up the official report, he shall point out to the parties by whom the designs and models have been lodged, what formalities they have to fulfil, and the fees to be paid either to the local authorities or to himself.

Art. XXXVII.—He shall not undertake any employment incompatible with his duties.

Art. XXXVIII.—The secretary is paid at the following rate :—

	Cents.
Notice to attend the Council	80
For each page of certified copy document of 20 lines per page and 10 syllables per line	40
For a certified copy of the official report stating that the parties could not come to terms and which is only to contain a summary mention to that effect	80

These are the only fees the secretary may receive.

A copy of the foregoing tariff shall be posted up, so as to be easily visible in the secretary's office and the Council Chamber.

The secretary shall also keep an account of all fees received by him.

Art. XXXIX.—He shall see that the rooms and offices are kept clean and in order.

Art. XL.—The secretary's clerk shall attend every day, except Sundays and holidays, at the office from 9 a.m. until the meetings of the special and general committees are terminated, and in any case till 4 p.m.

His duties are performed under the direction of the secretary, whom he replaces when he is prevented from attending, or during his absence.

Huissiers (Process-Servers).

Art. XLI.—Huissiers to the Council are appointed in general meeting and may be dismissed at will, but if they are discharged the decision must be come to by a majority of two-thirds of the members of the Council.

Huissiers take oath in public to fulfil their duties well and faithfully.

Art. XLII.—They can only serve such summonses as the secretary permits, by authority to that effect given him under the provisions of Art. XXXII. *supra*.

They are to attend the meetings of the general committee, and should present themselves at the Council Chamber at 1 o'clock precisely.

They announce the entry of the Council and call the roll of

cases, handed to them for this purpose by the secretary. They can only retire when the proceedings are terminated.

They must send the original summonses to the secretary's office before noon of the day before the hearing.

They notify the judgments of the Council and perform all the duties of their office relating to the jurisdiction of prud'hommes.

Huissiers are paid at the following rates:—

	Fr.	c.
For a summons	1	25
each copy thereof ($\frac{1}{4}$ of the original fee)	0	30
notifying a judgment	1	05
each copy thereof ($\frac{1}{4}$ of the original fee)	0	25

If the distance between the huissiers' residence and the place where the summonses and judgments are to be served or notified exceeds half a myriametre.

	Fr.	c.
Per myriametre there and back—		
For the summons	1	75
notification	2	00

NOTE.—1 myriametre = 10 kiloms., *i.e.*, 6·2138 miles.

The above are the only fees the huissiers are allowed to charge for the functions above mentioned.

A copy of the foregoing tariff shall be annexed to that of the secretary's fees, as prescribed by Art. XXXVIII. *supra*.

Badges.

Art. XLIV.—Members of the Council must wear their badges when attending the meetings. The badges being the property of the Council, they are to be returned by the members to the secretary after each meeting is over.

Notice of Attendance.

Art. XLV.—Councillors to pay careful attention to the notices sent them by the secretary on the president's order.

The hours fixed for all duties and attendances are to be regarded as the usual time for such duties and meetings.

When a member whose turn it is to serve cannot attend, he shall inform the president at least three days beforehand so that that officer may provide a substitute.

A councillor may agree with one of his colleagues to replace him in his duties, but he must inform the president of such substitution. He must take the first turn of service which his substitute is called upon to perform.

If a councillor should neglect to attend at three consecutive meetings or hearings without giving good and sufficient reason for

his absence, or if he should decline to act when called upon, the case shall be immediately referred to the superior authority to be dealt with according to the Law of 1864.*

List of Councillors.

Art. XLVI.—In order to define the respective seniority of the members of each committee, a list shall be made up during the month which follows the partial renewals and the election of the president and vice-president, in which list the names of the councillors (*prud'hommes*) are entered in two categories, one of employers the other of workmen.

The names of the president and vice-president figure at the head of the list.

Art. XLVII.—The list indicates the order of seniority of every member.

The period which precedes a temporary absence from the Council caused by non-re-election shall be counted as active service.

In case of an equal term of service the right of seniority belongs to the elder.

Art. XLVIII.—The list signed by the president and the secretary is placed in the Council chamber.

General Provisions.

Art. XLIX.—The hearing of cases at the general meetings shall be public.

If the discussions are of a nature likely to give rise to scandal the president may order the doors to be closed, but the judgment must be pronounced publicly.

Art. L.—The special and general committees hear the parties in person. They shall take care not to admit as representatives of the parties, in case of absence or sickness, any paid or other representatives, but only a relative, a merchant, or manufacturer, bearer of a procuration if it concerns an employer, and in the case of a workman one of his relatives, a workman like himself.

Art. LI.—The Council does not meet on legal holidays.

Art. LII.—Deputations intended to take part in official receptions, public ceremonies, or funerals of deceased members are to consist of an equal number of employers and workmen (*see* Art. XXIV. *supra*).

Art. LIII.—A copy of the present regulations shall be kept in the audience chamber of the general committee, the special committee, and the secretary's office.

Art. LIV.—Any modification which in the future it may be deemed requisite to make in the present regulations must be adopted in general meeting and submitted to the approval of the Minister of Commerce and Industry and the Colonies.

* Law by which councillors may be dismissed on refusing to act.

Resolved and decreed in general meeting of the Council this 4th day of May, 1891.

(Signed) EUGENE VACQUEREL,
President of the Council of Prud'hommes (Section
of Chemical Products)

The present regulations concerning the Council of Prud'hommes of Paris (Section of Chemical Products) has been read and approved.

Paris, this 8th day of August, 1891.

(Signed) JULES ROCHE,
Minister of Commerce and Industry and the Colonies.

ELECTORS OF THE COUNCIL OF PRUD'HOMMES.

The following are electors of Prud'hommes:—

Heads of workshops, foremen and workmen of fully 25 years of age, who have worked for at least five years and have been domiciled for three years within the district of the Council.

The definition of "employers" and "head of workshops," as laid down in the Ministerial Circular of July 5, 1853, relating to the Lower Councils of Prud'hommes is as follows:—

Employers.—Every one who converts into products the materials belonging to him shall be considered an employer.

Workmen.—The term "head of workshops" should only be understood to mean the workman by the job who at his domicile, either alone or assisted by one or more companions or apprentices, works upon the materials entrusted to him by others.

The elements of these lists are obtained from the town halls after being applied for by means of bill posting.

The electoral lists are revised on the eve of elections.

It is quite understood that the inscription of a citizen's name may be claimed by every elector. In order to obtain inscription on the electoral lists it is sufficient to prove that the applicant is French, of 25 years of age, and has carried on his trade for five years and lived in the district of the Council for three years. The required proofs may be submitted in whatever way may be possible, provided that they are authentic, such as passports, elector's cards, service books, receipts for rent and taxes, other certificates, &c.

The possession of a service book being no longer obligatory, and the Law of June 15, 1854, being no longer enforced, it is evident that the production of the service book can no longer be insisted upon.

Elections.

Invitations to attend the ballot should be issued not only by means of bill-posting but by notice sent to each elector. Workmen and employers are convened separately to elect their respective "prud'hommes."

Workmen, heads of workshops, and foremen vote together.

Of Eligibility.

In order to be eligible the candidate must possess his civil rights like the elector.

He must be 30 years of age and able to read and write.

TARIFF.

	Fr.	c.
Notice to attend	0	30
Summons	1	80
Judgment	3	20
Notification	3	90
Writ	2	60
Notice of seizure	11	80
Official report of publication	12	00
Verification	8	00
Total cost	43	60

APPENDIX O.

No. 1753.

DRAFT GOVERNMENT BILL ON OPTIONAL AMICABLE SETTLEMENTS AND ARBITRATION.

Draft Government Bill on optional amicable settlements and arbitrations in matters of collective trade disputes between employers and workmen.

Referred to the Council of Prud'hommes sitting on arbitration questions, and laid before the Chamber of Deputies, in the name of the President, by the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

PREAMBLE.

By the institution of "Conseils de Prud'hommes" (Council of Experts) French legislation has provided for the rapid and economical settlement of individual litigation arising between employers and workmen with regard to the execution of agreements or contracts relating to labour, but it has hitherto paid but little attention to collective disputes likely to spring from such agreements or contracts, the renewal thereof, or the modifications that may be brought about by the successive transformations which occur in all industrial matters.

In order to avoid such conflicts as much as possible and to encourage employers and workmen to settle amicably their disputes the Government had already on May 29, 1886, caused to be laid before the Chamber of Deputies by M. Lockroy, at that time Minister of Commerce and Industry, the draft of a new Law on arbitration, but it did not come on for discussion.

Since then Parliamentary initiative has produced several proposals of a like character.

It may, therefore, be affirmed that a system of law which would facilitate conciliatory measures and recourse to arbitration in collective conflicts between employers and workmen or employés would both fulfil urgent requirements and lessen general anxiety.

In fact, notwithstanding a movement of opinion strongly in favour of arbitration, in spite even of stipulations on this point contained in the articles of association of numerous professional syndicates, private initiative, when left to itself, has but very rarely

succeeded in the successful employment of this mode of pacification.

Nay, the most recent events have proved that it is not by means of conciliation and arbitration that employers and workmen at first proceed to settle their mutual differences.

It is only when strikes are declared or are prolonged, when the sense is already blunted and the heart embittered by the struggle that the thought of resorting to arbitration first arises.

Now, as no simple and rapid mode of procedure exists for such cases, and as, on the other hand, those who are disposed to make the first overture have to propose them to their opponent, they naturally fear that he would consider such a step as a sign of weakness and an encouragement to resistance, and therefore an almost insurmountable hesitation stifles the best intentions.

Nevertheless, the need of an intermediary ends by making itself felt, and then more often than otherwise the mayors or prefects are begged to act, with the risk of giving rise to a doubt of whether it is only a conciliator that is sought for.

A Law that would previously point out such an intermediary, and trace and indicate the course to be followed by the contending parties with the object of bringing them together to discuss the terms of an amicable settlement, is therefore indispensable.

Much less disposed to innovate than to utilise existing measures by improving them, we have, in accordance with the wish of the Higher Council of Labour, chosen for this task the Justice of the Peace, whose very title proclaims conciliatory tendencies.

It is to him that in cases of collective disputes the party desirous of making terms should in the first place make known his intention. He will at once give notice of this to the other party concerned by inviting him to meet his opponent in his presence and on neutral ground.

Whatever may be the position, the representatives of the parties, employers, or workmen who disagree could approach one another without feeling humiliated and without fear of a false interpretation of their motives.

They could freely discuss their interests in the presence of an enlightened man to whose pacifying intervention they could appeal at all times so that rational counsels may prevail and the dispute be amicably settled.

These entirely voluntary personal meetings of the parties and the impromptu discussion of the questions appear to us calculated in most instances to remove mutual prejudices and want of confidence.

They will usually suffice to settle the differences, but even should this end not be attained, the means of coming to terms would not be exhausted, for we propose as a second mode of settlement of such accidental crises to have recourse to arbitration for which, likewise, a simple and rapid procedure is provided.

Moreover, the maintenance of social harmony requires, after the appeasement of declared conflicts, the elimination of elements

which might give rise to fresh ones; therefore, we provide that Committees of Conciliation which have retained the confidence of the principals, may be transformed by them into permanent Councils of Arbitration, which being kept constantly informed of the least difference arising between employers and workmen, might prevent them from degenerating into open contention.

DRAFT BILL.

*The President of the French Republic.**

DECREES—

The Bill, the text of which follows, shall be laid before the Chamber of Deputies by the Minister of Commerce and Industry, who is entrusted with the explanation of it and with its defence in debate.

Art. I.—Committees of Conciliation and Councils of Arbitration are instituted in order to prevent or to amicably settle disputes of a collective character between employers and workmen, relating to the conditions of labour.

The sanction of their decisions depends upon the loyalty, the spirit of justice and honour of the parties.

Section I.—Of Temporary Conciliation and Arbitration.

Art. II.—Employers and workmen who, though desirous of coming to terms by arbitration, have not been able to agree directly among themselves according to the conditions of such arbitration, may either jointly or separately, personally or by representatives, send to the justice of the peace of their district or one of the districts in which the difference arises a declaration in writing containing—

1. The names, occupations, and other descriptions, and residences of the applicants or their representatives.

2. The subject of the dispute with a concise statement of the motives alleged by the party.

3. The names, occupations, &c., and residences of the parties to whom the proposed arbitration should be notified.

4. The names, occupations, &c., and residences of the delegates chosen, in the trade or employment, by the applicants.

Art. III.—The Justice of the Peace delivers a receipt for such declaration with the date and hour of its deposit, and then notifies it to the opponent or his representatives within 24 hours, free of charge.

Art. IV.—On receipt of this notification and within three days at the latest the parties interested shall cause a reply to be sent

to the Justice of the Peace and shall give their reasons in case of refusal.

After the above delay has expired, silence on their part will be construed as a refusal.

Should they accept the proposal to arbitrate they name in their reply delegates equal in number to those chosen by the applicants. If distance or absence of the parties to whom the proposal to arbitrate has been notified or the necessity for consulting representatives, partners, or directors will not permit of a reply being sent within such three days, the representatives of the said parties shall within such delay make known what time they require within which to reply.

This declaration shall be transmitted by the Justice of the Peace to the applicant within 24 hours.

Art. V.—If the proposal to arbitrate be accepted, the Justice of the Peace immediately convenes the delegates appointed by the parties.

In case of absence of one or more delegates of either party the youngest delegate or delegates who exceed the number on the other side shall have a right to take part in the discussion but not to decide the issue.

Art. VI.—The delegates of both parties in equal number constitute the Committee of Conciliation.

Their meetings are held in the presence of the Justice of the Peace, who is at their disposal to preside over the debate of the parties if so wished but with no deciding powers.

Art. VII.—If an understanding be come to in this committee the conditions are set forth in an official report drawn up by the Justice of the Peace and signed by the delegates.

Art. VIII.—If no arrangement is come to the Justice of the Peace calls upon them to nominate a common arbitrator or an arbitrator for each of them. In case two arbitrators are appointed these latter may choose a referee.

Art. IX.—The decision taken on the merits is drawn up and signed by the arbitrators and handed to the Justice of the Peace.

Art. X.—If the arbitrators do not agree either as to the settlement of the difference or on the choice of a referee the failure of the arbitration is recorded in an official report.

Art. XI.—Minutes of the reports and decisions mentioned in the preceding Arts. VII., IX., and X. are kept at the registry of the Justice of the Peace, who delivers a copy gratis to each of the parties concerned and sends one to the Minister of Commerce and Industries through the medium of the Prefect.

Art. XII.—When an amicable settlement or arbitration has fixed the conditions of labour it shall be held good in law as concerning individual litigation unless regulations to a contrary effect exist.

Art. XIII.—The application for arbitration, the refusal to accept the same, or the absence of reply from the opponent, the decision of the Committee of Conciliation, or the decisions of the arbitrators, or finally, the failure of the attempt at arbitration as

notified by the Justice of the Peace or the Mayor of each district where the difference occurs, are published by each of the said Mayors by posting them up at the place reserved for official notices.

Art. XIV.—The premises required for holding meetings of Committees of Conciliation or Councils of Arbitration are to be furnished, heated, and lighted at the cost of the district where they are held. These costs are to be included in the expenses incumbent on such districts.

Section II.—Of Permanent Councils of Conciliation and Arbitration.

Art. XV.—Temporary Committees of Conciliation mentioned in Art. VI. may, with the consent of the parties represented by them, and while acting in conformity with the terms of Art. XVI. infra, be transformed into "Permanent Councils of Conciliation and Arbitration" for the purpose of forestalling or regulating all fresh disputes of a collective character bearing upon conditions of labour likely to arise between the parties.

They may designate permanent or temporary arbitrators, to be chosen either within or without the trade.

Art. XVI.—Official reports of the constitution and regulations of such permanent Councils must be lodged within the week at the registry of the Justice of the Peace. The same rule applies to the decisions containing nominations of arbitrators or relating to the disputes submitted to them.

The Justice of the Peace sends a certified copy of each of these documents to the Minister of Commerce and Industry and the Colonies by the medium of the Prefect.

Art. XVII.—The decisions of these Councils, if they require it, are to be notified by the Justice of the Peace or the Mayor of each of the districts where the dispute extends for publication by being posted up at the place reserved for official notices.

Art. XVIII.—Art. XII. is applicable to them.

Permanent Councils can claim the benefit of Art. XIV.

Done at Paris, November 24, 1891.

(Signed) CARNOT,
President of the French Republic.

(Countersigned) JULES ROCHE,
Minister of Commerce and Industry.

APPENDIX P.

EXTRACT FROM THE ARTICLES OF ASSOCIATION OF THE SYNDICAL CHAMBER OF BUTCHERS OF PARIS AND THE DEPARTMENT OF THE SEINE.

Art. I.—A syndicate is formed among the butchers of Paris and the Department of the Seine. The syndicate is represented by a Syndical Chamber.

Art. II.—Its objects are :—

1. To promote good relations and bonds of fraternity among its members.
2. To watch over the dignity of, and consideration due to, the trade, and to maintain loyalty in all its transactions.
3. To provide in the common interest of its members a permanent representative committee, charged with dealing with the Government, elective bodies, the Prefectures of the Seine and of Police, administrations, octrois, railway and insurance companies, and all other private societies.
4. To provide competent experts for the tribunals.

Art. III.—The following classes of persons may belong to the syndicate either as members or associates.

1. As members: all the butchers of the Department of the Seine.
2. As associates only: all persons carrying on a trade or industry directly connected with the above.
3. Members only can be present at the monthly and general meetings of the corporation.

Art. IV.—The admission of a new member is decided by the Syndical Chamber. Persons in a state of bankruptcy cannot be admitted as members.

Composition of the Syndical Chamber.

Art. VI.—The Syndical Chamber, charged to represent the syndicate and to manage its interests, is composed of 49 members, elected in the following manner :—

Two for each quarter ("arrondissement") of Paris, comprising the public markets, one for the "Halles-Centrales," and eight for suburbs, *i.e.*, one for each district.

No one can be appointed delegate for a quarter or a district unless he regularly carries on business as a butcher in such quarter or district.

Committee of the Chamber.

Art. IX.—The Chamber appoints a committee, composed of a president, two vice-presidents, a treasurer, two secretaries, and one secretary-agent.

The committee, with the exception of the secretary-agent, shall be renewed every year.

Retiring members are re-eligible.

Art. X.—The duties of the president are:—

1. To preside over the meetings of the Syndical Chamber and the general meetings of the syndicate, to direct discussions, report on the same, proceed to vote on the subjects of discussion, and proclaim the result. He has the right, and is bound, to stop from speaking, any member not in order who abuses that privilege, and to call back to the point, and even call to order those who depart from the question under discussion.

2. To preside over arbitration committees.

3. To receive applications for admission and proposals and claims of all kinds, and to submit them to examination by the chamber.

Duties of the Chamber.

Art. XIV.—The Chamber shall hold meetings on the first Thursday of every month, unless the month or the day fall on the 1st, in which case it shall meet on the Thursday following.

Art. XV.—The president is bound to convene a meeting of the Chamber whenever the request is made by, at least, twelve members.

Of Arbitration.

Art. XXIII.—The Chamber constitutes itself a paternal tribunal to settle all disputes that may arise between the members of the syndicate and other similar corporations.

Art. XXIV.—Committees of arbitration shall sit in rotation, and shall consist of four members, assisted by the president.

Each committee shall remain in office for a month.

Art. XXV.—For every matter submitted to arbitration by the Chamber a fee of not less than 5 fr. shall be charged. This fee shall be charged to non-associates only, but for each matter pending between associate members a fee of 2 fr. shall be charged for office expenses and correspondence.

Art. XXVI.—The arbitration committee shall meet every Wednesday, at the offices of the Syndical Chamber, 11, Rue du Roule.

Applications for arbitration must be made to the Chamber at least four days before the meeting, or they will be adjourned to the next meeting.

Arbitrations.

Arbitration sessions are held on Wednesday in each week, at the offices of the Chamber, 11, Rue du Roule. Applications for arbitration must be made to the secretary's office, at the Chamber, at least four days in advance.

ARTICLES OF ASSOCIATION AND RULES OF THE MIXED SYNDICAL COUNCIL OF PAPER MAKERS.

Art. 1.—A mixed Syndical Council is instituted, composed of eight members of the Second Committee of the Syndical Chamber of the Paper Trade, and eight members of the Working Men and Women Paper Makers' Syndicate.

The object of this Council is to conciliate all disputes arising between employers and workmen on questions of labour which should be submitted voluntarily to the Council before having recourse to the jurisdiction of the "Prud'hommes."

A certain day in each week shall be fixed for holding the meetings of the Syndical Council, which shall only meet when convened and when disputes arise which require to be examined.

For the examination of such disputes six members shall form a quorum, three of them to be employers, and three workmen.

The Council shall regulate the order of its sittings, and the attendance by rotation of those of its members who are to be present at each sitting.

Art. II.—In case of disputes between the whole body of workmen and their employers, the Mixed Council should immediately meet and make every effort to bring about an understanding and prevent strikes.

Art. III.—Registers shall be kept at the Syndical Chamber of the supply and demand for labour for assistants, workmen and women, and apprentices in the paper trade.

Moreover, the said Syndical Chamber, being informed that the Syndical Chamber of Working Men and Women in the trade undertakes to provide employment for men and women out of work, shall give notice of this to all its members, and invite them to apply to either of the two chambers when they require hands.

The foregoing articles were drawn up by employers appointed by the Syndical Chamber of the paper trade and workmen delegates of the Working Men and Women's Syndical Chamber, and were unanimously adopted at the general meeting of the Working Men and Women's Chamber, held on November 23, 1873, and by the Syndical Chamber of the Paper Trade, at the meeting of December 5 following, and were revised by the delegates of both Chambers on January 23, 1889.

Rules.

Rule I.—The committee of the Mixed Syndical Council is composed of a president and a secretary, who are elected for one year and chosen without distinction, one from among the employers, the other among workmen.

The committee is to be elected during the month of January, by private ballot, and on the absolute majority of votes.

Rule II.—A meeting of all the members of the Council shall be held at the request of the president, after five days' notice by letter, on the third Wednesday of each quarter in January, April, July, and October, at half-past 8 o'clock in the evening, at the offices of the Syndical Chamber of the Paper Trade and Industries connected therewith, No. 10, Rue de Lancry.

Questions relating to the paper trade shall be set down on the order of the day to be generally discussed together, and, if necessary, to be voted upon.

For its decisions to be valid the Council should be represented by at least one-half of its members, employers and workmen.

The vote is taken by raising of hands.

Rule III.—The Council shall also meet at the special request of the president whenever application may be made to it on one or more matters.

In order to inquire into the disputes submitted to the Council, all the members present shall have a consulting vote, but the resolutions can only be voted by an equal number of employers and workmen, all of whom are to be drawn for by lot except the president and the secretary, who are entitled to vote ex-officio.

Rule IV.—The Council may, after special deliberation, grant the title of "honorary member" to those of its members who have rendered special services to the Council.

Honorary members may take part in the meetings of the Council, with the privilege of speaking only, unless they are delegated by their respective chambers, in which case they can both speak and vote.

The above articles of association and rules, adopted by the Mixed Syndical Council at its installation meeting, held January 7, 1874, presided over by Mr. J. L. Havard, president of the Syndical Chamber of the Paper Trade and the Industries connected therewith, have since been revised by the Mixed Syndical Chamber, then again adopted by the Syndical Chamber on June 6, 1884, and February 1, 1889, and by the Working Men and Women's Syndical Chamber, on October 19, 1884, and February 18, 1889.

The offices of the Syndical Chamber of the Paper Trade and the Industries connected therewith, are at 10, Rue de Lancry, and the offices of the Workmen's Syndical Chamber are situate at the Labour Exchange ("Bourse du Travail"), 35, Rue Jean Jacques Rousseau.

APPENDIX Q.

DECREE ESTABLISHING HIGHER COUNCIL OF LABOUR.

The PRESIDENT of the French Republic, on the Report of the Minister of Commerce and Industry,

Decrees:—

Art. I.—A Higher Council of Labour is instituted in connection with and under the direction of the Minister of Commerce, Industry, and the Colonies.

Art. II.—This Council is composed of 50 members nominated by decree at the request of the Minister of Commerce and Industry, and chosen among members of Parliament, manufacturers, workmen, members of Syndical Chambers, associations of employers or workmen, corporate bodies, Councils of Prud'hommes, and in a general way among persons specially informed on economical and social questions.

The following are also members of the Council, *ex officio*, namely:—

The Director of Home Commerce.

“ “ Technical Education.

“ “ Railways, at the Office of Public Works.

“ “ Roads, Navigation, and Mines at the same office.

“ “ the Department of Mutual Benefit Societies at the Home Office.

The Director-General of Deposits.

The President of the Paris Municipal Council.

The Director-General of Works of the City of Paris.

The President of the Paris Chamber of Commerce.

“ “ Tribunal of Commerce of Paris.

The vice-presidents and secretaries of the Superior Council are nominated by the Minister and appointed by ministerial decree.

Art. III.—The members of the Council are appointed for 2 years. Half of their number shall be renewed every year. At the first meeting of the Council lots shall be drawn to regulate the order of withdrawal.

Retiring members are re-eligible.

Art. IV.—The Council assembles on the invitation of the Minister of Commerce and Industry, who shall fix the date, duration, and object of each session. The Minister may also institute a permanent commission, chosen among the members of the Higher Council.

Art. V.—The Council may, with the Minister's sanction, institute enquiries and hear all those whom it may consider capable of throwing light on the questions brought to its notice.

Art. VI.—The members of the Council may be allowed, by special decision of the Minister, attendance fees and travelling expenses.

Art. VII.—The Minister of Commerce and Industry is charged with the execution of the present decree.

Done at Paris this 22nd June, 1891.

(Signed) CARNOT,
President of the Republic.

(Signed) JULES ROCHE,
Minister of Commerce, Industry, and the Colonies.

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APPENDIX R.

EXTRACT FROM REPORT OF THE HIGHER COUNCIL OF LABOUR.

*Recommendations.**Section 1.—Payment of Wages.*

Art. I.—The payment of wages shall be made at least twice a month.

Art. II.—Cash advances made by the employer shall give no other right than the retention of one-tenth of the sum advanced.

Art. III.—No compensation whatever can be made for the benefit of employers between the amount of wages due from them to their workmen and the amounts due to themselves for goods supplied of whatever nature, always excepting—

1. Tools and instruments required for the work.
2. Materials and objects of which the workman has the charge and use.

Section 2.—Of the Non-Seizable and Non-Transferable Nature of Wages.

Art. IV.—The wages of workmen and servants cannot be attached or seized beyond one-tenth. The same applies to the salaries of clerks and employés of civil or commercial companies, public offices, merchants or other private persons, when they do not exceed 2,400 fr. per annum.

Art. V.—Not more than one-tenth of wages and salaries can be transferred to third parties.

Art. VI.—Wages and salaries may be attached up to one-third of their value for supplies of food in the cases provided for by Arts. 203, 205, 206, 207, 214, and 349 of the Civil Code.

Art. VII.—The foregoing provisions do not concern the transfers or seizures set forth in the above Articles 203, 205, and following.

Section 3.—Of Procedure by Distraint.

Art. VIII.—In matters of distraint the jurisdiction of the Justice of the Peace shall take the place of that of the Civil Court.

Art. IX.—Process servers' notices are replaced by registered letters.

Art. X.—If the distrainer has no documents he should, within 24 hours of sending notice of seizure, cause to be delivered to the person distrained, a notice to appear before the Justice of the Peace who confirms or annuls the seizure. This judgment is notified by means of a simple registered letter to the person distrained.

Art. XI.—Within eight days of the notice sent to him, either of distraint or of the judgment confirming the same, the person so distrained shall inform the Justice of the Peace either by declaration at the registry or by letter—

1. of the amount of his daily or monthly wages ;
2. what is due to him at the time.

Art. XII.—The counter notice sent to the person distrained shall be dispensed with, as also the demand for confirmation when the distrainer is in possession of documents.

Art. XIII.—When several seizures are made on the same property, measures should be taken to avoid as much as possible accumulation of costs, and a procedure of distribution by simple assessment should be organised.

Section 4.—Of Privilege guaranteeing Payment of Wages. .

Art. XIV.—Wages due to workmen for the last three months, and salaries due to employés for the last six months, in case of the insolvency of the employer who is not a trader are classed as privileged claims according to the terms of Art. 2101 of the Civil Code.

APPENDIX S.

EXTRACT FROM M. MAROUEJOUL'S REPORT ON THE LABOUR BUREAU.

Questions to be Studied and Recommendations.

Centralisation of information on the position and movement of labour in France and abroad.

Division, by professions, into large, ordinary, and small industries.

Condition of agricultural labourers; their wages; culture on a large and small scale.

Statistics of the number of establishments relating to each of the above branches.

Statements of the number of such establishments as are managed by the employers themselves, by managers of joint stock companies, limited companies, and by co-operative societies.

Number of hands of either sex, adults and children, employed in such industries; movement in proportion to the number of men and women employed.

Mutual aid and provident institutions.

Wages paid to men, women, and children in such industries.

Duration of hours of labour as applied to each of above.

Day work, piece work, or job. Slack seasons, their causes and duration.

Industrial, agricultural, and other syndicates. Number of hands having no special trade; their social condition.

Relations between employers, assistants, and workmen.

Causes of disputes between employers, assistants, and workmen.

Settlements of such disputes, strikes, arbitrations, conciliations, lock-outs.

Number of orphanages, industrial schools, refuges, &c., for both sexes, civil and religious; number of children; conditions of labour and wages; kind of work, maintenance, mortality; conditions of apprenticeship in the different industries; professional and apprentices' schools; their number according to the trade; statistics of accidents resulting from or while at work; sickness, pensions, security and insalubrity of workshops or work.

Average duration of active service of workmen; mortality.

Statistics of labour in prisons.

Centralisation of information and reports from foreign Consulates, Legations, Embassies, and Chambers of Commerce.

Foreign legislation with respect to labour.

Relations with all similar offices abroad; labour exchanges.

In this manner should be determined, as far as possible, the motives for the acceleration or slackening of productions in different branches of trade, the result of the concentration or diffusion of capital, the effect of employers or workmen's societies, the causes and consequences of industrial crises, disputes between employers and employed, the variation of supply and demand of manual labourers, and the exact movement of wages as compared with the cost of living among the working classes; progress made in credit establishments, savings' banks, and provident institutions, and in co-operative societies for consumption and production; in a word, the collection of all the materials indispensable for the rational preparation of reforms, and the constitution of a *quasi* observatory of the conditions of labour.

APPENDIX T.

EXTRACT from the Report of the Proceedings of the Chamber of Deputies—Session of 1892.

(*État des Travaux Législatifs.*)

Professional Syndicates.

On March 19 the Chamber began the examination of a Bill, the object of which was to put a stop to infringements on the exercise of rights accorded by the Law of March 21, 1884, to professional syndicates of employers and working men.

On March 22 the Chamber decided by 404 votes against 124 votes, out of 528 voters, to discuss the articles of the Bill.

The discussion was resumed on April 2, and M. Bovier Lapierre, the member in charge of the Bill, presented a new draft of Art. I.

M. Dumay proposed again, as an amendment, the original text amended by the Committee.

This amendment was negatived by 349 votes against 147 votes, out of 496 voters.

A counter proposition, supported by M. Laroche-Joubert, was negatived by 318 votes against 181 votes, out of 494 voters.

On April 4 a discussion took place upon the text, as modified by the Committee.

The Chamber, after having negatived M. Ramel's amendment by 317 votes against 181 votes, out of 498 voters, adopted by 292 votes against 208 votes, out of 500 voters, paragraph 1 of the text submitted by the Committee in the following terms:—

"All employers, labour contractors, and foremen who shall have been proved to have by threats of loss of employment or privation of work, specified refusal to engage hands, discharge of workmen or employers on account of their being members of a syndicate, violence or assault, gifts, offers or promises of work, constraint or hindrance to becoming members of a syndicate, or who shall have tampered with or disturbed the institution or working of professional syndicates recognised by the Law of March 21, 1884, shall be punishable by imprisonment from six days to one month, and a fine of from 100 fr. to 2,000 fr., or by one or other of the above penalties only."

M. Jourde demanded the elimination of the second paragraph, punishing by the same penalties all workmen and employes who by similar means (excepting the case of concerted stoppage of labour) shall have obliged one or more workmen and employers to become or not to become members of a syndicate or to retire from syndicates of which they were members.

This paragraph was negatived by 288 votes against 129 votes, out of 417 voters.

The final form of Art. I., which then consisted of only the first paragraph above quoted, was adopted by 271 against 221 votes, out of 492 voters.

Arts. II. and III. did not give rise to discussion, and the final form of the Bill, relating to professional syndicates, was voted by 267 votes against 215 votes, out of 482 voters.

THE following Government Bills and Draft Bills were lying before the Chamber of Deputies during the Session of 1892, relating to the organisation of labour and social legislation.

Projets de Loi.

Proposing modifications in the Law of March 21, 1884, relating to the institution of professional syndicates, Nos. 1461, 1840.

On conciliation and optional arbitration in matters of collective disputes between employers and workmen and employés, Nos. 8, 147, 213, 294, 287, 1753, 1799, 1903.

Proposing to institute a national fund for pensions to workmen, No. 1473.

Proposal adopted by the Chamber of Deputies, with modifications by the Senate, further modified by the Chamber, amended by the Senate and then by the Chamber, and finally adopted with further modifications by the Senate, on the work done by children, girls (minors), and women in industrial establishments, No. 2039.

Bill to establish a reserve fund in order to meet the possible consequences to the Treasury of the realisation of the securities in the hands of savings' banks at critical moments, and to increase the security of depositors, No. 578.

Report on the organisation of savings' banks by the commission appointed to inquire into:

1. the Government Bill hereon;
 2. regulations concerning the employment of the funds in savings' banks so as to render them productive;
 3. the institution of a peoples' bank by means of savings' banks,
- No. 186.

Report on the above Bill and Report, No. 1443.

Private Bills.

Bills relating to the attachment of wages and salaries paid to workmen and employés, clerks and minor officials; on the employment of the funds so attached, and on the reduction of costs, Nos. 167, 293, 143, 292, 992.

Bills respecting the liability of employers for accidents to their workmen, and to obligatory insurance, Nos. 745, 746, 1144, 11511, 153, 1176, 1274, 1526, 1926.

Extension to travellers on commission and commercial
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travellers of the benefit under Art. 549 of the commercial code applicable to clerks in case of employer's insolvency, Nos. 929, 1040, 1939.

Prohibiting labour by women recently confined, during a certain period, and compensating them for enforced incapacity to work, Nos. 1187, 1191, 2027.

Relating to the sojourn of foreigners in France and the protection of national labour, Nos. 63, 81, 119, 124, 187, 771, 2042.

Relating to the employment of workmen and employés in all classes of trade, Nos. 174, 194, 309, 310, 2067.

To exempt from succession duties all donations and bequests to hospitals, mendicity and mutual aid societies, and pension funds, Nos. 400, 484.

Constitution of a popular credit fund by intermediary of the savings' banks, Nos. 19, 633.

That the Chamber should meet every Friday for the special consideration of questions relating to the working classes, Nos. 548, 798.

Against the intervention of the army between capital and labour, Nos. 44, 831.

Relating to the administration of funds for the aid of workmen in cases of sickness, accidents, and old age, Nos. 76, 832.

Institution of a natural agricultural insurance fund, Nos. 1279, 1676.

Suppression of labour in prisons by contract or indirect excise, and to subject religious communities, workshops, and convents to a tax at a fixed rate or a proportional rate by license, Nos. 1820, 1443.

To settle according to the necessities of life a minimum scale of wages for workmen and employés by order of trade and by department, Nos. 1916, 1449.

To exempt from stamp and registration duties deeds and contracts of provident societies, pension funds, and mutual aid societies founded by professional syndicates, Nos. 1336, 2033.

Commission of 33 members to examine:

1. A proposal to reduce the working day to 8 hours in mines, works, factories, and generally in all mechanical workshops, Nos. 43, 257.

2. Modification in the duration of labour in works and factories, Nos. 106, 257.

3. On the conditions of labour in match manufactories, No. 109

4. On the regulation of industrial labour, No. 144.

5. Relating to a protective legislation for labour to become the subject of international laws and treaties, and for this purpose tending to the nomination of a special commission of 22 members chosen among the committees, No. 166.

6. On the regulations of workshops, No. 591.

7. Institution of a national fund for pensions on retiring from work, Nos. 253, 444.

8. On retiring pensions for agricultural and industrial labourers, Nos. 497, 873.

9. On the organisation of a pension fund, Nos. 617, 809.

10. On the organisation of a workman's pension fund, Nos. 618, 1022.

11. On the organisation of a pension fund for workmen and invalids and a capitalisation fund, Nos. 815, 1021.

12. On the organisation of a national fund for pensions to working people of both sexes, No. 1360.

13. The extension to liberal professions of the provisions of the Law of March 21, 1884, on professional syndicates, Nos. 811, 1019.

14. To limit to a maximum of 8 hours per day labour in mines, No. 1376 (see No. 1 above).

15. To reduce to a maximum of 8 hours per day labour in mines and unhealthy establishments, and to 10 hours in workshops and factories, No. 1412.

16. (a) To decide that in future there shall always be inserted in contracts for work for the Government, departments, and districts a clause prohibiting contractors or concessionnaires who have been accepted, from exacting more than 8 hours' labour per day, and a clause fixing the minimum rate of wages.

(b) To institute district workshops carried on by Government for the manufacture of articles of military and naval equipment.

(c) To regulate the conditions of labour on board merchant ships, No. 1426.

17. To re-organise the system of control over the working staffs of railway companies, No. 1734 rectified.

18. The organisation of a savings bank and pension fund, No. 1858.

19. On the conditions of labour connected with the carriage and removal of goods, Nos. 1731, 1870.

20. (a) Proposal for a national pension fund for persons of both sexes over 60 years of age.

(b) For a fund in aid of those who are absolutely or temporarily incapacitated for work.

(c) For immediate assistance in cases of extreme distress and destitution, No. 1919.

21. On the admission of working men's syndicates to contracts for labour or supplies voted for different districts, No. 1972.

22. On the limitation of the working day to 10 hours and 6 days per week, not applicable to agricultural labourers, No. 2001.

23. On the institution of a national general pension fund for all workmen over 60 years of age, No. 2071.

Proposition to abrogate Arts. 291 to 294 of the Penal Code, and the Law of April 10, 1834, on liberty of association, and to suppress all restrictions on such right, Nos. 23, 216.

Ditto, No. 373.

To the effect that liberty of association shall not require any previous authorisation, No. 1880.

(a) On the regulation of workmen's wages, No. 273.

(b) To render non-lia ble to attachment small wages and salaries under 60 fr. per month, No. 1301.

Five propositions:—

1. To facilitate popular and agricultural credit, No. 793 (people's and land banks).

2. On the organisation of agricultural credit, No. 947.

(8289)

3. On the organisation of agricultural credit, and as a corollary the establishment of stores and warehouses and the institution of certificates of the storing of saleable corn, No. 1772.

4. To charge the State with the insurance of the produce of the soil against effects of the weather, Nos. 569, 751.

5. The institution of a general agricultural insurance fund, directed and administered by the State, No. 1773.

Relating to the participation in profits obtained in Government contracts and concessions, Nos. 1428, 1480.

To subject to taxation in favour of the national labour pension fund the total amount of the sums subscribed in France for shares in private companies and those of foreign countries, No. 487.

To ensure tobacco cultivators from the effects of the weather, No. 884.

To modify the system of the national pension fund for payments, effected by mutual aid societies, No. 889.

On the lighting of mines liable to explosions of fire-damp, No. 893.

To improve the condition of railway workmen and employés, No. 925.

To found hospitals for those incapable of work, and workshops for valid workmen out of employment, No. 1410.

To entrust to syndical chambers of workmen the work of the national printing establishment, No. 1670.

Establishing a tax upon capital, Nos. 255, 450.

Abrogation of Arts. 414 and 415 of the Penal Code dealing with the liberty of labour, Nos. 1668, 1787.

Organisation at Paris of an international exhibition of apparatus for avoiding accidents in mines and industry, No. 1662.

Foundation of district hospitals and gratuitous medical assistance, Nos. 29, 286, 621, 1899.

Partial abrogation of the Law of 1853 on civil pensions and the institution of a general pension fund, specially applied to custom-house employés, No. 824.

Election of a member of the Higher Council on Labour, No. 1221.

Adding to the privileges enumerated in Art. 2102 of the Civil Code those of workmen with regard to the furniture, plant, and implements in farms, factories, and workyards, and the articles and goods produced, extracted, or manufactured by them, No. 1980.

Providing that all workmen and women shall be allowed one day in every week for rest, No. 1720.

Three proposals relating to the obligations of railway companies with regard to their employés, No. 1103.

On hiring contracts and the condition of railway employés with regard to the companies, Nos. 1105, 1188.

On the retirement of employés of French railway companies, Nos. 1385, 1386.

To promote the construction of healthy and cheap workmen's dwellings and the building of one or more of such establishments in each department, No. 1940.

APPENDIX U.

AGRICULTURAL LAND.

Official returns show that agricultural land is divided into more than 14,000,000 lots, varying from about half an acre to about 370 acres, or more, thus:—

Number of Lots.	Area.				
	From—			To—	
	Total.				
	Acres	r.	p.	Acres	r. p.
2,670,512	0	1	39	..	..
1,444,951	0	1	39	0	3 38
2,482,380	0	3	38	1	3 36
1,987,480	1	3	36	2	1 35
1,841,045	2	1	35	4	3 30
932,444	4	3	30	7	1 25
573,053	7	1	25	9	3 20
388,631	9	3	20	12	1 15
280,060	12	1	15	14	3 10
210,566	14	3	10	17	1 05
164,390	17	1	05	19	3 00
130,851	19	3	00	22	0 35
107,020	22	0	35	24	2 30
476,843	24	2	30	49	1 20
151,017	49	1	20	74	0 10
70,466	74	0	10	98	3 00
40,346	98	3	00	123	1 30
50,230	123	1	30	185	0 25
23,273	185	0	25	246	3 20
31,567	246	3	20	370	1 10
17,676	370	1	10	..	..
14,074,801	..	..	..	..	..
				121,927,375	2

	Area.	Total Area.
	Acres.	Acres r.
The surface cultivated by the owner and his employes and servants represents ..	47,844,375	59,052,500 0
The surface cultivated by holders on condition of payment in kind	11,208,125	
The surface cultivated by tenant farmers who profit by the total produce of the land.. .. .	..	21,782,812 2

NOTE.—These figures do not give the number of proprietors, as one person may be the owner or tenant of houses and land in several places.

APPENDIX V.

SAVINGS BANKS.

EXTRACT FROM THE "BULLETIN DE STATISTIQUE."

*Ministry of Finance, December, 1891.**National Savings Banks, 1890.*

The results obtained last year were still more important than those of 1889, and, generally speaking, it may be said that 1890 has risen to the culminating point of the State Savings Bank since its foundation.

The institution of branch banks in a certain number of provinces, not taking into account the normal progress of the system throughout the country, has given special activity to the transactions in these provinces, and has contributed in a considerable degree to the great development demonstrated in 1890.

Firstly as regards the annual statistics of the bank since its foundation:—

GENERAL Statement of Transactions.

Year.	Number of Post Offices corresponding with the National Savings Bank.	Number of Accounts Open on Dec. 31.	Sums due to Depositors on Dec. 31, with Interest thereon.	Average of Credit to each Account on Dec. 31.	Relative Cost of Administration with regard to the Amount due to Depositors on Dec. 31.
			Francs.	Fr. c.	Per Cent.
1882	6,024	211,580	47,601,639	224 97	0·76
1883	6,193	375,838	77,431,415	206 05	0·62
1884	6,423	541,823	115,402,034	213 21	0·58
1885	6,620	692,582	184,155,572	222 59	0·56
1886	6,649	845,053	190,674,127	225 63	0·61
1887	6,712	979,597	223,519,666	223 17	0·56
1888	6,765	1,129,584	266,788,603	236 08	0·53
1889	6,792	1,301,743	322,073,913	255 09	0·49
1890	6,817	1,604,688	413,439,049	274 76	0·47

Sums Deposited and Withdrawn.

Last year 1,949,371 deposits, representing a total sum of 261,999,132 fr., and 738,561 withdrawals, representing 191,521,015 fr., were effected.

The net excess of the deposits over the withdrawals was therefore 70,478,117 fr.

The first deposits have never been so numerous nor so considerable as in 1890.

Year.	First Deposits.		Average Amount of Deposit.
	Number.	Amount.	
		Fr. c.	Fr.
1882	227,438	47,606,879 75	210
1883	207,827	40,440,833 07	194
1884	222,159	46,780,639 82	210
1885	221,107	52,185,749 17	236
1886	239,502	58,522,168 38	244
1887	236,888	58,640,041 71	247
1888	261,966	67,573,159 67	257
1889	293,129	78,220,984 32	266
1890	348,847	100,973,521 33	289
General total and average	2,258,863	550,943,977 22	243

SUMS to the Credit of Depositors.

	Amount.		Amount.	
	Fr.	c.	Fr.	c.
On December 31, 1889, the general account of depositors was credited by the sum of	..		332,073,912	70
To ascertain the sum due to depositors on December 31, 1890, it is neces- sary to add (1) the excess of receipts on December 31, 1890	70,478,117	03	..	
(2) Capitalised interest to the credit of depositors during 1890 ..	10,887,019	23	81,365,136	26
Sums to the credit of depositors on December 31, 1890	..		413,439,048	96

Investment of Funds.

The assets of the bank on December 31, 1890, is represented by French Government securities, the property of the bank; by the balance of its current account, with interest, at the Deposit Office; by the value of the real estate, purchased and fitted up; and, finally, by the amount of its transactions with the Treasury at the commencement of 1891, such transactions relating in reality to 1890.

French Government Securities belonging to the National Savings Bank.

On December 31, 1890, the National Savings Bank held in French Government securities a capital of 366,384,471 fr. 41 c., represented by:—

	Fr.	c.
(a) 192,250 fr. of 4½ per cent. Rente, costing	4,504,903	54
(b) 2,914,566 fr. of 3 per cent. perpetual Rente	87,362,683	30
(c) 7,857,530 fr. of 3 per cent. redeemable Rente for the purchase of which was employed	205,800,427	25
(d) 2,738,000 fr. of Rente in Treasury debentures purchased for	68,716,457	32
Total	366,384,471	41
Balance of the current account, with interest at the deposit office amounting to	46,533,873	67
Total assets of the bank	412,918,345	08

State of Finances.

The revenues of the National Savings Bank for 1890 amounted to 13,733,123 fr. 71 c., viz.:—

	Fr.	c.
Interest paid by the deposit office on capital invested in current account	1,475,676	11
Arrears of Rente purchased for the account of the National Savings Bank. Coupons of April, July, and October, 1890, and January, 1891	12,055,515	60
Redemption premiums on the 3 per cent. Rente	200,673	30
Sundries, sale of documents, &c.	1,261	70
Total	13,733,123	71
The capitalised interest to the credit of depositors in 1890 to be deducted	10,887,019	23
Balance of revenue applicable to administrative expenses ..	2,846,104	48

Administrative Expenses.

The expenses for the year 1890 amounted to 2,084,398 fr. 29 c.

	Fr.	c.
Salaries	1,552,860	34
Stationery, furniture, &c.	337,937	17
Purchase of premises in the Rue St. Romain	138,500	00
Incidental expenses	25,093	14
Expenses relating to accounts closed	29,998	64
Total	2,084,398	29

And as the revenue applicable to administrative expenses has been settled at 2,846,104 fr. 48 c., the bonus realised in 1890 amounts to 761,706 fr. 19 c.

Endowment Account.

This account is composed of:—

1. Current account with the Deposit Office.
2. Real estate account.

The first account has been debited with the amount of profits realised during 1884–89, *i.e.*, 1,556,337 fr. 5 c.; inclusive of interest, 48,995 fr. 11 c.

The second has been debited with a sum of 958,458 fr. 64 c., representing the sums paid from 1866 to 1890 for the purchase and fitting up of premises.

The figures 2,514,995 fr. 69 c. are thus obtained. If to these figures be added the net bonus of 1890, *i.e.*, 712,711 fr. 8 c., and the expenses paid out of the 1890 accounts for the purchase and fitting up of the premises, *viz.*, 138,500 fr., a total of 851,211 fr. 8 c. is obtained, which, being added to the preceding sum, brings the amount up to 3,366,206 fr. 77 c., the state of the two endowments on June 30, 1891, at which date the account for 1890 was closed.

EXTRACT FROM THE "BULLETIN DE STATISTIQUE."

Ministry of Finance, December, 1891.

Of Private Savings Banks, 1890.

The publication of the report on savings bank transactions has this year been somewhat hastened. The report containing the following statistics is dated November 27, 1891, and appeared in the "Journal Officiel" of December 3.

In 1891 the savings banks then open together with their 1,055 branches or auxiliary offices, and the 410 collectors employed, delivered 534,865 new bank books, and received 3,531,622 deposits, of the total amount of 869,476,090 fr.

They capitalised for the benefit of the depositors interest to the amount of 100,944,027 fr.

They paid off 333,294 accounts, and paid out 2,298,551 sums, amounting to 739,023,848 fr., nearly all in coin.

They employed 18,939,859 fr. for the purchase of 687,178 fr. of Rente for the account of depositors. Upon this sum the voluntary purchases amounted to 631,750 fr. of Rente, corresponding to a capital of 17,251,118 fr.

The rate of purchase represents an average revenue of 3.66 per cent.

The payments of all kinds, therefore, absorbed 757,963,707 fr., instead of 683,686,485 fr. as in 1889, equal to a surplus of 74,277,223 fr.

The total receipts, including interest, credit of transferred accounts, arrears of "Rentes" collected by the banks, and the

capitalised interest in favour of depositors, which was 872,068,495 fr. in 1889, rose in 1890 to 985,338,616 fr.

On December 31 the private savings banks held on deposit for the account of 5,761,408 depositors 2,911,722,358 fr., making an average of 505 fr. 38 c. per depositor.

The latter figures represent with regard to the superficial extent of territory 10·89 depositors per square kilom., and with regard to the population 1 depositor in 6·63 inhabitants, or 151 depositors per 1,000, and 76 fr. 19 c. each inhabitant.

At the same period the personal estate of private savings banks amounted to 73,351,677 fr., invested principally in Rentes, in premises intended to be used for carrying on their business, and in current account at the Deposit Office.

The bonuses arising from the difference of 0·25 or 0·50 per cent. between the interest received by the savings banks from the Deposit Office at the rate of 4 per cent., and that which they allowed to depositors at 3·75 or 3·50 per cent. (the maximum and minimum rates) form four-fifths of their annual receipts.

In 1890 these amounted to 9,670,132 fr.

On the other hand, the expenses amounted to 5,561,831 fr., so that the profit realised on this head came to 4,108,301 fr.

As is shown by the following table, the savings bank accounts of above 1,000 fr. alone produced this sum.

The smaller accounts caused the loss of 2,592,907 fr., but this sum is reduced to 1,525,903 fr. by reason of the profit of 1,067,004 fr., produced almost exclusively by the accounts of 501 fr. to 1,000 fr.

The following table shows the division of the bonuses produced by the effect of the reserve and the administrative expenses according to the value of each class of account:—

Value of Accounts.	Corresponding Bonuses.		Corresponding Expenses.		Profit.		Loss.	
	Fr.	c.	Fr.	c.	Fr.	c.	Fr.	c.
Accounts of less than 20 fr.	62,218	66	16,333,509	76	...	...	1,581,291	10
" 21 fr. to 100 fr.	173,095	20	9,449,559	09	...	...	771,859	89
" 101 fr. to 200 fr.	240,786	06	430,542	20	...	...	239,766	14
" 201 fr. to 500 fr.	817,125	39	638,009	79	119,115	60	...	...
" 501 to 1,000 fr.	1,675,263	04	627,374	54	947,888	50	...	...
Total of accounts under 1,000 fr.	2,858,488	35	4,384,391	38	1,067,004	10	2,592,907	13
Loss on these accounts	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,525,903	03
Accounts above 1,000 fr.	6,811,643	70	1,177,439	73	5,634,203	97	...	...
General total	9,670,132	05	5,561,831	11	4,108,300	94	...	...

Profiting by the authorisation given by virtue of the Order of June 3, 1829, and the Law of June 5, 1835, savings banks deposit the funds collected by them in current account at the Deposit Office, which, by virtue of the Law of March 31, 1837, was charged with the administration of such accounts under the guarantee of the public Treasury, and the surveyance of the Special Commission instituted by the Law of April 28, 1816.

The total of the sums due by the Deposit Office on December 31,

1890, to private savings banks in France, Algeria, and the Colonies, both for funds belonging to the depositors and that portion of the personal estate of the banks left in current account, amounted to 2,960,317,034 fr.; of which 2,953,007,251 fr. were due to savings banks of Paris and the provinces, and 5,231,312 fr. to those in Algeria.

To represent these funds the Deposit Office held for the special account of savings banks the following securities:—

	Currency.				
	Francs.	Francs.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.
3 per cent. original Rente ...	...	40,549,012	...	1,093,749,313	98
3 " redeemable Rente—	...	...	...	...	...
Transfer of 1879 ...	3,827,645	...	86,796,073	75	...
Consolidation of 1882 ...	42,803,820	...	1,145,173,750	21	...
Purchased on Stock Exchange ...	3,204,945	...	97,595,288	16	...
4½ per cent. Rente ...	...	49,336,310	...	1,329,565,122	12
Treasury Debentures (Law of May 31, 1875), conversion of the Morgan Loan (48 Debenture Bonds) ...	...	745,997	...	18,875,112	75
Railway Debenture Bonds of 500 fr. (28,481 Debentures) ...	...	...	...	265,322,471	30
Railway Debenture Bonds. Paris to Orléans (588 Debentures) ...	...	...	...	9,458,543	26
Treasury Debentures (short term) 4 per cent. (1,500 Debentures) ...	...	...	...	590,286	0
Treasury Debentures (Law of July 22, 1885 (263,800 Debentures) ...	...	...	...	15,120,000	0
The amount of the current account with the Treasury ...	...	...	...	131,900,000	0
General total ...	...	...	...	95,756,964	43
				2,960,337,313	79

NOTE.—After various rectifications made in the course of 1891, the sum due on December 30, 1890, by the Deposit Office to the Savings Banks was reduced to the total sum of 2,960,317,034 fr. 10 c. as stated above.

The revenue and rate of interest on the securities in hand and in current account in 1890 were:—

Description.	Revenue.		Rate of Interest.
	Fr.	c.	Per Cent.
3 per cent. Rente	40,549,012	00	3·7070
Redeemable 3 per cent. Rente (transfer of 1879)	3,475,653	75*	4·0040
Redeemable 3 per cent. Rente (consolidation of 1882)	44,531,479	23*	3·8886
Redeemable 3 per cent. Rente (purchased on stock exchange)	3,273,106	75*	3·3537
4½ per cent. Rente	745,997	00	3·9522
Treasury debentures (Law of May 31, 1875)	10,546,027	84	3·9047
Railway debentures of 500 fr.	410,126	40	4·3360
" " Paris to Orsay	26,784	00	4·5874
Treasury debentures at short term 4 per cent.	600,000	00	3·9682
Treasury debentures (Law of July 22, 1885)	5,276,000	00	4·0000
Securities in hand	109,434,186	97	3·8202
Account current with Treasury	1,915,139	23	2·000
Total	111,349,326	25	3·7613

* This advance was made provisionally by the reserve in proportion to the difference of interest arising at the time from the consolidation of 1,200,000,000 fr. decreed by the Law of December 30, 1882.

The interest allowed by the Deposit Office to the savings banks amounted to 112,478,256 fr., and was paid on the following :—

	Francs.
On the produce of investment of capital	105,744,998
By interest on the fund in current account with the Treasury	3,788,930
On the revenues of the special reserve in the deposit office for savings banks	1,832,168
For amount deducted from the capital of the said reserve	1,001,750
By means of a supplementary advance by the Treasury	110,410

Such a position entirely justifies the reduction of the rate of interest made up to the private savings banks by the Deposit Office, in accordance with the provisions of the Finances Bill of December 26, 1890, 3·75 per cent. from and after January 1, 1891.

This measure was favourably received by the depositors, who recognised its legality. The savings banks which recognised the fact consider that if this reduction of interest had been immediately greater it would, on the contrary, have brought about a profound disturbance in their transactions.

The transactions of the savings banks in 1890 are characterised by the very great and simultaneous development of the deposits (869,000,000 fr.) and the withdrawals (739,000,000 fr.).

The balance due to depositors on December 31 rose proportionately, viz., to more than 2,911,000,000 fr.

But the marked progress observed is only due to the excess of deposits over the withdrawals of all kinds to the extent of about

one-half, the surplus being derived from the capitalisation of interest.

The new savings bank books and those in circulation on December 31 have also participated in this progressive movement in a more notable proportion than formerly.

Depositors in private savings banks represent at present one-sixth of the population.

It may be said that only the purchase of Rente made at the request of depositors remains stationary; nevertheless, during the years in which the Rente produced a very remunerative revenue, much superior to the interest paid by the savings banks, the sums employed in this sort of investment were not so considerable; they were even less.

These institutions do not therefore appear likely to place among their depositors a large amount of "Rentés."

Their object, which is to receive deposits on current account, does not seem to be subject to modification.

Notwithstanding the high figures attained by the deposits and withdrawals, transactions of small importance do none the less continue to be very numerous.

Three-fourths almost of such deposits, and two-thirds of the withdrawals, do not exceed 200 fr.; from 1,001 fr. to 2,000 fr., hardly one-twentieth of the deposits and one-twelfth of the withdrawals take place, the latter being frequently effected in order to close the account entirely, either on account of death or for the purpose of investing the amount withdrawn in a definite manner.

The same occurs with regard to the books in circulation on December 31.

Those of 200 fr. and under that sum represent more than half of the total, 3,168,224 fr. out of 5,761,408 fr.; if the amount of the accounts above 1,000 fr., *i.e.*, nearly 2,036,000,000 fr., form two-thirds of the balance due to depositors, their number, 121,644, is relatively restricted, and scarcely represents one-fifth.

It is the latter class of accounts which supply to the savings banks the annual resources with which they carry on their transactions.

The retention of 25 c. or 50 c. per 100 fr., which they deduct from the interest allowed by the Deposit Office, does not produce a sufficient sum for them to balance the corresponding expenses, in so far as they relate to accounts of 1,000 fr. or under that sum.

There remains a considerable excess of expenses, which the produce of accounts of over 1,000 fr. serves to meet, at the same time that it permits these institutions to increase their personal estate, which constitutes the depositors' guarantee.

This point has been observed in a general way even under the preceding legislation, from 1851 to 1881, when the maximum of the accounts was fixed at 1,000 fr.

It was the accounts exceeding this maximum, and which were liable to reduction, that supplied the difference by means of which

the savings banks covered the loss occasioned by the management of transactions of less importance.

On several occasions even the total bonuses produced by the retention in question did not suffice, and the surplus of expenses had to be charged upon the revenue or capital of the personal estate.

Savings Banks.—December 31, 1891.

1.—POST-OFFICE Savings Banks.

A. DEPOSIT ACCOUNT.

Year.	Accounts Opened with Fresh Depositors.	Accounts Existing on December 31.
Provisional statement (1891) ..	Francia. 420,000	Francia. 1,734,388
Definitive „ (1890) ..	848,847	1,504,688
Difference from 1890 ..	+ 71,153	+ 229,700
Equal to	20.40%	15.27%

B. CREDIT ACCOUNT.

Years.	Deposits Effected During the Year.	Balance due to Depositors on October 31.
Provisional statement (1891) ..	Francia. 323,296,137	Francia. 505,760,011
Definitive „ (1890) ..	261,999,132	413,439,049
Difference from 1890 ..	+ 61,297,005	+ 92,320,962
Equal to	23.40%	22.30%

2.—Private Savings Banks.

A. DEPOSIT ACCOUNT.

Years.	Accounts Opened with Fresh Depositors.	Accounts Existing on December 31.
Provisional statement (1891) ..	Francia. 513,600	Francia. 5,936,825
Definitive „ (1890) ..	534,865	5,761,408
Difference from 1890 ..	—21,265	+ 175,417
Equal to	3.96%	3.05%

B. CREDIT ACCOUNT.

Years.	Deposits Effected During the Year.	Balance due to Depositors on December 31.
	Francs.	Francs.
Provisional statement (1891) ..	835,894,734	3,052,311,273
Definitive „ (1890) ..	869,476,090	2,911,722,358
Difference from 1890 ..	-33,581,356	+ 140,588,915
Equal to	3.86%	4.83%

N.B.—By uniting the national to the private savings banks, the figures attained are 7,671,213 as the total number of accounts, and 3,558,071,284 fr. as the balance due to depositors.

APPENDIX W.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY AND NATIONAL INSURANCE FUND AGAINST ACCIDENTS.

*Draft Bill.**Section I.—Enterprises subject to Insurance.**Accidents—Compensation.*

Art. I.—All accidents happening by and during the performance of their duties to workmen and employés engaged in building works, factories, manufactures, yards, transport, loading and unloading of merchandise, public warehouses, mines, mining stores, quarries, and generally in all establishments or branches thereof in which explosive materials are manufactured or employed, or where use is made of steam engines or machines worked by elementary power (air, water, steam, gas, hot air, electricity, &c.), or by animals, give right in favour of the sufferer or his representatives to compensation, the importance and character of which are hereinafter determined.

This provision is applicable to workmen and employers engaged in enterprises and works connected with the State, the departments, districts, and public establishments.

Art. II.—Employers and workmen whose annual wages exceed 2,000 fr. only, benefit by the provisions of this law up to that amount.

Art. III.—When the accident causes permanent and absolute incapacity to work, the sufferer is entitled to a life annuity equal to two-thirds of his annual wages.

Blindness, the complete loss of the use of two limbs, or any incurable infirmity which renders the workman unable to work and provide for his maintenance, are considered as permanent and absolute incapacity to work.

Art. IV.—When the accident causes permanent partial incapacity, the compensation allowed to sufferers by the preceding article is diminished in proportion to the capacity to work still retained.

Art. V.—At the time of the final settlement of the compensation the sufferer may demand that one-fourth of the capital required to constitute a life annuity shall be paid him in cash.

This capital is calculated according to the provisions of Art. LXXIII. of the present law.

The sufferer may also demand that the capital required for the constitution of his pension, reduced or not, as provided by the preceding paragraphs, shall be employed, up to one-half at least, for the constitution of a life annuity in favour of his wife.

Art. VI.—When the accident is fatal the compensation shall be composed of—

(1) The value of 20 days' pay for funeral expenses. This sum is not to exceed 100 fr., and shall be paid to the representatives within eight days from the date of death. It may be advanced by the head of the establishment, who shall be reimbursed by the district.

(2) A pension paid to the persons hereafter indicated from the date of death under the following conditions:—

(a) A life annuity equal to 20 per cent. of the deceased's annual wages in favour of the conjoint survivor, his widow, not divorced, nor against whom judicial separation has been pronounced, on condition that the marriage had been contracted previous to the accident.

(b) For the children or orphans of father or mother up to the full age of 16 years an annuity calculated on the deceased's annual wages at the rate of 15 per cent. if there be one child only, 25 per cent. if there be two, 35 per cent. if there be three, and 40 per cent. if there be four or more children.

The annuity to each of the children, orphans of both parents, shall be 20 per cent. of the wages.

Illegitimate children who have been recognised previous to the accident have right to the same annuities, and come under the same conditions as the legitimate offspring.

The total annuities granted to the children cannot exceed 40 per cent. of the wages in the first case, nor 60 per cent. in the second. Each of the above annuities may be proportionally reduced according to circumstances.

(c) If the deceased be unmarried, or leaves neither widow nor child, a life annuity to such of his ascendants who were supported by him shall be paid at the rate of 10 per cent. of his annual wages on condition that the total amount does not exceed 20 per cent.

Each of these annuities may be proportionately reduced according to circumstances.

Art. VII.—The representatives of a foreign workman who at the time of the accident did not reside in France, are not allowed to claim under the foregoing provisions unless they can prove that in the country of which the sufferer by the accident was a native, French citizens enjoy such privilege without condition of residence.

Art. VIII.—In all accidents which have caused incapacity to work during more than three days, the head of the establishment shall bear the expense of medical attendance and medicines. He shall also pay during the illness arising from the accident a sum equal to one-half of the sufferer's wages, on condition that such sum does not exceed 3 fr. 50 c. per diem.

The head of the establishment is only responsible for this compensation for a period not exceeding 30 days from the date of the accident. After the thirtieth day, if the sufferer be not in a fit state to return to his work, the temporary indemnity above

provided and cost of attendance and medicines shall be at the charge of the district. The head of the establishment shall, however, continue to provide them up to the time when a definite decision has been pronounced by competent jurisdiction, but as an advance only, and at the expense of the district, which shall reimburse him.

This temporary compensation shall be paid from the date of the accident at the usual periods of payment of wages, and at latest every 15 days.

Art. IX.—Heads of establishments may relieve themselves of the obligation to pay the cost of the illness and temporary compensation during the first 30 days following the accident if they can prove—

(1) That they have at their own cost founded special benefit funds, or have associated their workmen to approved or authorised mutual aid societies.

(2) That such funds or societies are bound to pay, independently of the treatment of the wounded, a compensation equal to one-half of their daily wages, on condition that this indemnity shall not be obliged to exceed 3 fr. 50 c. per diem during the illness, or at least during the first 30 days.

Art. X.—The articles of association of private benefit societies mentioned in the foregoing article shall be drawn up in accordance with the laws relating to mutual aid societies and professional syndicates

A regulation of the public administrative authorities shall settle the modifications to be made in the existing articles of association of mutual aid societies in order to adapt them to the new powers conferred upon them.

Section II.—Amount of Wages to be taken as a Basis for fixing Annuities and Compensations.

Art. XI.—The annual wages to workmen employed in the works during the 12 months preceding the accident shall be understood to include the actual remuneration granted him by the head of the establishment either in money or in kind.

For those who have been employed less than 12 months prior to the accident, the annual wages shall include the actual remuneration they have received since they were engaged, increased by the average pay that workmen of the same class have received during the period required to complete these 12 months.

In industries where the work is intermittent, the annual wages are calculated equally upon the active period of work and the earnings of the workmen during the rest of the year.

If a portion of the wages be paid in kind, the valuation shall be estimated according to the customs and tariffs of the place.

In the case of workmen under 18 years of age, or apprentices, the amount of compensation to be paid, as provided by Arts. III.

to VI., shall not be less than the lowest wages paid to valid workmen of the same class employed on the works.

The temporary compensation and funeral expenses shall in every case be calculated upon the daily pay of the sufferer at the time the accident occurred.

Section III.—Declaration of Accidents—Inquiry.

Art. XII.—Every accident causing incapacity to work and happening in establishments of the class mentioned in Art. I., shall be declared by the head of the establishment or his representative.

This declaration shall be made within 48 hours of the occurrence to the mayor of the district, who shall draw up an official report in the form to be settled by a Ministerial Decree.

The head of the establishment shall annex to this declaration a medical certificate setting forth the state of the injured person, the probable consequences of the accident, and the date when it may be possible to learn the positive result.

A voucher for the declaration and medical certificate shall be immediately given by the mayor to the deponent.

Similar declarations and productions of certificates may be made by the injured man or his representatives.

Art. XIII.—When the injuries appear likely to become fatal or to entail permanent incapacity for work, the mayor shall send copies of the declarations and medical certificate to the justice of the peace for the district.

Within 24 hours of the receipt of such notice the justice of the peace shall institute an inquiry for the purpose of learning—

- (1) The cause, nature, and circumstances of the accident.
- (2) The names of the sufferers.
- (3) The kind of injuries sustained.
- (4) The place where the killed or wounded are to be found.
- (5) The relatives of the sufferers who may present claims for compensation.

- (6) The daily and annual wages of the sufferers.

Art. XIV.—The inquiry shall be held in the manner prescribed by Arts. 35, 36, 37, and 39 of the Code of Civil Procedure in the presence of the parties concerned or those duly and specially convened by registered letters.

The justice of the peace shall visit those injured by the accident who, by reason of their injuries, cannot possibly attend the inquiry.

When the medical certificate does not appear to him sufficient, the Justice of the Peace may appoint a doctor to examine the sufferer.

He may also nominate an expert to assist him in the inquiry.

Nevertheless, there shall be no need to nominate an expert when the enterprise is under administrative control, or in cases

of State enterprises or works submitted to a service of control distinct from the system of management, and in Government establishments in which operations are carried on which the necessities of public safety require to be kept secret.

In these various cases the officials charged with the survey or control shall transmit to the justice of the peace, to be annexed to the official report of the inquiry, a copy of the report, which they are required to send in to the judicial authorities.

The justice of the peace may claim from those concerned all such further information as may be of use for ascertaining the truth.

Art. XV.—Except in cases of material impossibility duly set forth in the official report, the inquiry shall be closed with the shortest possible delay, and at latest within 10 days from the date of the accident.

The Justice of the Peace shall give notice by registered letters to the parties of the inquiry being closed, and of the report being lodged at the registry, where, during five days, they may take cognizance thereof, and obtain unstamped copies.

After the expiration of the said five days, the documents relating to the inquiry shall be transmitted to the president of the District Civil Court.

Art. XVI.—Heads of establishments or their representatives who neglect to comply with the provisions of Art. XII. shall be punished by a fine of 16 fr. at least, such fine not to exceed 200 fr.

In case of repeated neglect within 12 months, the fine may be increased from 200 fr. to 1,000 fr.

Art. 463 of the Civil Code is applicable to offences provided for by the present article.

Section IV.—Competence, Jurisprudence.

Art. XVII.—Disputes between sufferers from accidents, the heads of establishments, or the district, with regard to temporary compensation, medical attendance, cost of medicines, and funeral expenses shall be decided, without appeal, by the Justice of the Peace of the district where the accident occurred.

Art. XVIII.—With regard to the other compensations provided for by the present law, within eight days of the reception of the documents relating to the inquiry, the president of the Civil Tribunal shall convene the injured person or his representatives, the head of the establishment, and the representative of the district. If the parties agree, the amount of the compensation shall be definitely settled by an order of the president, who delivers an act to this effect.

When the parties do not agree, the dispute shall be settled at the chief town of the district where the accident occurred, by a court composed of three heads of establishments and three workmen assembled before the president of the tribunal, or in his absence before the judge appointed by him.

Art. XIX.—For this purpose, during the month of February in each year a commission, composed of the Justice of the Peace and the mayors of the cantons, shall draw up two lists containing, the

one, the names of all the heads of establishments, partners of firms, directors and managers; the other the names of all the workmen employed in such establishments.

Only those heads of establishments or workmen who are 30 years of age, able to read and write, residing in the district for at least two years, and possessing their civil and political rights, can figure in the above lists.

Art. XX.—The lists of each canton shall be drawn up in duplicate; one shall be lodged at the registry of the Justice of the Peace, and the other at the registry of the Civil Tribunal of the district.

Interested parties may take cognizance of these lists during the 15 days which follow their being lodged at the registry of the Justice of the Peace.

Art. XXI.—During the month of April a commission, composed of the president of the Civil Tribunal and four members appointed by the Prefect from among the Councillors-General and District Councillors shall draw up district lists of heads of establishments and workmen.

This commission may enter on the lists the names of those omitted from the cantonal lists, and cancel those which have been entered therein by mistake.

The district lists, when definitely settled, shall be signed immediately and lodged before May 1 at the registry of the Civil Tribunal.

Art. XXII.—Whenever necessity arises for application to the Court of Arbitration, the District Tribunal shall draw lots at a public meeting from the district lists for 12 jurymen, six among the heads of establishments, six among workmen and employers. Four extra jurymen residing in the chief town of the district are to be appointed in the same manner.

Art. XXIII.—The President of the Tribunal, or the judge who takes his place, causes the parties and the jury to be summoned by giving them notice at least five days in advance of the date and place of meeting. The notice to the parties shall contain the names of the jurymen.

Art. XXIV.—Every jurymen who without lawful reason fails to attend, or refuses to take part in the deliberation, incurs a fine of 16 fr. to 300 fr. The fine is pronounced by the President of the Court of Arbitration, who delivers judgment without appeal upon the defence put forward by the jurymen so fined.

This magistrate also pronounces, without appeal, upon the causes of hindrance put forward by the jurymen, and upon all causes of incapacity and exclusion.

In case of insufficient numbers, the President shall select from the lists drawn up according to Art. XXI. the persons, heads of establishments, or workmen required to complete the Court of Arbitration.

XXV.—The registrar of the Civil Tribunal shall draw up an official report of the proceedings. He shall call in due order the causes upon which the Court of Arbitration has to decide.

When the case is called the parties have each the right to three peremptory challenges.

When several parties interested appear in the same case they

shall settle among themselves their right to challenge or draw lots to decide which of them shall exercise this right.

If the right to challenge be not exercised, or only partially, the President shall first constitute the Court of Arbitration from among the regular jurymen, and afterwards among the extra members.

Art. XXVI.—When the Court has been formed every jurymen shall take oath to fulfil his duties impartially.

The parties or their attorneys may summarily present their observations.

The Court of Arbitration may hear all those whom it believes capable of throwing light on the subject, and also use any means for information that it deems necessary.

The discussions shall be public. The provisions of Section V of the Code of Civil Procedure on the order of public audiences are applicable to the Court of Arbitration. After the discussion is declared to be closed by the President, the Court shall immediately retire to deliberate without quitting the place.

The motives of the decision shall be stated.

Art. XXVII.—The decision of the Court of Arbitration can only be appealed against by a petition of appeal, and then only for excess of power or violation of the law. The appeal must be made by declaration at the registry of the Civil Tribunal within 15 days from the date of the decision.

The appeal shall be notified to the parties interested within the week under penalty of forfeiture.

Within the 15 days of notice of appeal, the documents shall be sent to the Civil Chamber of the Court of Appeal, which shall deliver judgment in the course of the following month.

The judgment, if delivered by default at the expiration of this delay, is not subject to opposition.

When a decision has been reversed, the Court shall choose the Court of Arbitration, to which the case is referred, and may select the one which gave decision in the first instance.

Art. XXVIII.—Within the limit of his competency, the Justice of the Peace may, on an express request, after having consulted the list of taxpayers and ascertaining the position of the party making the request, order urgent judicial aid, which in such case is by right extended to Acts relating to the executions of the judgment delivered.

The Justice of the Peace shall order a process server to serve the necessary notices.

Art. XXIX.—A regulation of public administration shall enact the rules relating—

- (1) To the working of the cantonal and district commissions :
- (2) To the organisation of such commissions in Paris :
- (3) To the forms to be used before the Court of Arbitration, the manner in which this Court shall deliberate, and how its decisions shall be notified :
4. The organisation of judicial aid :
5. The indemnity to be allowed to jurymen.

Section V.—Responsibility—Actions for Compensation—Revision.

Art. XXX.—Neither of the compensations settled by the present law may be allowed to the injured persons who intentionally caused the accident.

Judgment should be deferred by the Court of Arbitration so long as no final decision has been pronounced in the public action brought before or during the claim for compensation.

Art. XXXI.—The Court of Arbitration has the right, if it be proved by the employer or the district that the accident was due to the serious fault of the workman, to diminish or even to refuse any pension whatsoever to the sufferer or his representatives.

Art. XXXII.—When it has been proved that the accident was due to the serious fault of the head of the establishment, or of one of those placed by him in charge of, or to survey, the works, the Court of Arbitration may increase the compensation provided under Section I.

The normal compensation is alone carried to the account of the district, or included in its expenditure. The payment of the supplementary compensation shall be recovered from the head of the establishment.

The injured person or his representatives have full right to benefit by judicial aid for the recovery of this compensation, which is guaranteed by the privilege conferred by Art. 2,101 of the Civil Code, and mentioned therein under No. 6.

Art. XXXIII.—Actions to recover the amount of the compensation provided for by the foregoing articles are limited to one year from the date of the accident.

Art. XXXIV.—The head of the establishment, the injured person or his representatives, and the district may appeal to the Court of Arbitration during three years from the date of the final decision in order to obtain a modification in case of improvement or aggravation of the state of the sufferer, and, in case of his death, the revision of the compensation originally allowed him.

Art. XXXV.—Sufferers from accidents whose wages exceed 2,000 fr., or their representatives, may make their claim for compensation against the head of the establishment either before the Court of Arbitration in the manner settled by Art. II., or before any other jurisdiction, according to the rules of common law.

Nevertheless, when such jurisdiction has been competently applied to they cannot have recourse to another.

Sufferers by accidents, whose wages do not exceed 2,000 fr., or their representatives, can only claim from the head of the establishment the compensation provided by the present law.

Art. XXXVI.—The injured person, or his representatives, reserve against the authors of the accident, other than the head of the establishment, a right to compensation for the injuries received, according to the rules of common law, but the damages thus obtained shall not accumulate with the compensation provided by Art. III. and those which follow it.

In such case the district or heads of establishments who are insured according to the provisions of Art. LXXV., Sec. VIII., are not responsible for the compensation provided by the present law, except in so far as it exceeds the amount of damages to which the authors of the accident are liable, and only for the portion exceeding the amount of such damages.

When the damages thus allowed consist of capital, the life annuity to which this capital corresponds should be calculated in order to settle the portion of the compensation remaining due by the district or the heads of establishments, as provided by Art. LXXIII.

Section VI.—Compulsory Mutual Insurance.

1. Districts and Sections.

Art. XXXVII.—As regards the annual distribution of the duties resulting from the present law, heads of establishments mentioned in Art. I., who are not insured on their own account and not members of a syndicate according to Art. LXXV., shall be compulsorily united in districts comprising one or more departments.

These districts shall be divided into sections.

The department of the Seine may be divided into several districts.

Art. XXXVIII.—The district shall possess a special administration entrusted to a committee of management. Each section shall be administered by a committee subordinate to the committee of management.

The district may take action at law, and is represented, with regard to third parties and the administration, by the president of the committee of management.

Art. XXXIX.—The mission of the committee of management is—

1. To draw up the annual statement of the subordinate establishments and the list of subscriptions to be collected from the heads of establishments in the district;

2. To settle the amount of the bonus which heads of establishments are entitled to receive as provided by Art. LXI.:

3. To deliberate upon the demands made by sufferers from accidents, or their representatives, and to authorise the representative of the district to accede, if need be, to such demands as provided by Art. XVIII.:

4. To cause the suppression of all compensations not due by the district:

5. And generally to look after and watch over all interests of the district.

Art. XL.—The mission of the committee of sections is—

1. To give its opinion on the classification of the establishments in the section, the regulation of their relative proportion of risk,

and upon the reduction of the subscription which heads of establishments may be entitled to:

2. To cancel all compensations paid in the section which are no longer due:

3. To keep the committee of management informed on all points of interest to the district, and to perform the duties delegated to it by this committee.

Art. XLI.—Heads of establishments may vote, and are eligible for the committees of sections if they possess civil and political rights and form part of the section.

Members of the committee of management are elected by the committee of sections, and may only be chosen from among the electors of these committees.

Heads of establishments, insured in the manner provided by Art. LXXV. and following, can neither be electors nor are they eligible for the committees of sections or districts.

Members of the committees are appointed for four years.

Each committee elects its own president.

Objections relative either to the list of electors or to the election of members of committees are decided upon according to the forms and conditions prescribed by the Law of December 8, 1883, on the election of consular judges.

Members of committees shall receive compensation, the amount of which is fixed, on the proposal of the committee of management, by the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

The committee of management nominates and revokes the secretaries, employés, and inspectors required for the working of the district, and fixes the amount of their salaries and compensations.

It also settles, on the proposal of the committees of sections, the number of the secretaries, employés, and inspectors of the sections and their salaries.

Art. XLII.—A regulation of public administration shall settle—

1. The respective boundaries of the districts and sections:
2. The seat of the district and of each of the sections:
3. The number of the members of the committees of management and of sections:

4. The industries which, according to the districts, should necessarily be represented on these committees:

5. The regulations relating to the formation of electoral lists, elections, deliberations, and the working and dissolution of committees.

2. *Higher Council on Accidents resulting from Labour.*

Art. XLIII.—A Higher Council on accidents resulting from labour is instituted by and under the presidency of the Minister of Commerce and Industry.

This council is composed of two Senators, two Deputies, two Councillors of State, the Director-General of the Deposit and

Lodgment Office, and of 10 persons chosen equally from among the members of the Institute of Actuaries, and such others as are well-known for their competency in matters relating to accidents from labour.

The Minister nominates the members of the Higher Council and chooses from among them a vice-president; he also appoints the secretary.

The Higher Council may call upon the directors of different State departments to take part in its deliberations.

A regulation of public administration shall fix the rules relating to the working of the superior council.

Art. XLIV.—The Higher Council shall draw up within six months of the promulgation of the law a list, in which shall be enumerated all the industries and professions subject to its provisions. It shall set forth the series of the relative proportions of risks to which each industry or profession is liable, according to the conditions under which they are carried on, which conditions should be stated in the said list.

To each class of industry at least three graduated proportions shall correspond.

The list shall be approved and made executory by decree, and shall be revised every three years.

In case of omission of an industry the parties interested may apply at all times to the Minister to obtain its insertion, and it shall be added, if need be, to the general list by means of a decree to that effect.

Art. XLV.—The Higher Council advises upon all matters submitted to it by the Minister.

It must be consulted upon all the regulations, decrees, and ministerial decisions delivered with regard to the application of the present law.

3. *Distribution of Compensation ; Drawing up of Lists ; Objections.*

Art. XLVI.—The sum to be distributed each year according to district comprises—

1. The capital required to constitute the incomes and pensions entered on the books during the preceding year :

2. The sums charged during the same period to the account of the district for funeral expenses, temporary compensation, and cost of administration and collection :

3. Additional capital for a reserve fund, the amount of which shall be settled annually by the committee of management, and shall not exceed one-fourth of the sum distributed during the preceding year.

Art. XLVI.—For this purpose the committee of management shall draw up every year for each parish of the district, according to notice and proposal of the committee of sections, a list of names according to the heads of all the establishments under the control of the parish or commune, with particulars of their classification

their relative proportion of risk, and, if need be, the reduction of subscription allowed to each of them.

The denomination of every establishment on the list, according to the character of the business carried on there must necessarily be taken from the decree of classification provided by Art. XLIV.

The committee of management decides which of the various proportions of risk specified by the decree shall be assigned to each respective establishment.

If several industries, having a series of different proportions on the general list are carried on in the same establishment, each of these industries requires a distinct classification with the assignment of a special proportion to each.

Art. XLVIII.—All heads of establishments who have carried on a trade or profession classified during the preceding year, and who have not fulfilled the provisions of Art. LXXV. and following should be entered on the list each year.

At the end of the list drawn up for each parish or commune shall be entered the names of all those heads of establishments who have declared their desire to benefit by the provisions under Sec. VIII.

Art. XLIX.—The list is addressed to the mayor of the commune during the first fortnight of December, to be placed at the disposal of interested parties during 10 consecutive days.

Notice thereof shall be given by posters and publication at the places set apart for this purpose.

A special sheet, previously marked and initialed by the mayor shall, during such period, be lodged at the town-hall for the reception of objections to which the list may give rise.

Each interested party may protest against the classification of his establishment and the proportion of risk attributed to him. Anyone may call attention to the establishments omitted.

Art. L.—At the expiration of the delay fixed by the preceding article the mayor shall send the list, together with the sheet of observations, to the committee of the section, which shall transmit it with its own decisions to the committee of management.

If this committee be of opinion that it is right to act upon the observations transmitted, it shall rectify the list.

Its decision is final as far as regards the settlement of the coefficient of risk.

Art. LI.—During the month of January every head of establishment so classified shall remit to the mayor of the district, who shall give an acknowledgement for the same, a declaration stating the number of workmen and employes engaged by him during the preceding year, the number of working days, and the total wages paid to them.

These declarations, collected by the committee of section, shall be transmitted by its means, and with its opinion, to the district committee.

They may be rectified by the committee of management, which settles *ex officio* the amount of wages in the establishments for which no declaration has been presented within the time allowed.

Art. LII.—When an establishment comprises several industries or professions, with separate proportions of risk, the declaration as to the amount of wages should be made separately for each of them.

Art. LIII.—The surveyor of direct taxes shall send each year to the committee of management a copy of the list of trade licenses in each district.

They shall also furnish to these committees or their agents all useful information at their disposal.

Art. LIV.—The annual distribution is made between each classified industry, or, if required, between each separate trade forming part of the same classified establishment in proportion to the product of its share of risk and the amount of wages of its workmen and employés.

Art. LV.—The districts may relieve themselves of the obligation to pay to workmen, and employés, temporary compensation, and costs of illness beyond the thirtieth day by means of subscriptions deposited for this purpose, with private benefit funds or mutual aid societies in the manner prescribed by Arts. IX. and X.

Art. LVI.—The committee of management shall draw up a list for each parish or commune. This list is made executory by the prefect of each department; it shall be published, and the amounts recovered in the same way as direct taxes.

Art. LVII.—Heads of establishments whose names were omitted from the original roll, who were engaged in any subordinate business or profession prior to January 1 of the year the roll was issued shall be assessed by means of supplementary rolls, which may be published at any time in the course of the year.

The assessment of these heads of establishments is settled in proportion to the share of risk and the amount of wages assigned to them by the committee of management at the rate of distribution resulting from the original roll.

Art. LVIII.—Interested parties may within a delay of three months from the date of the publication of the roll protest against the classification assigned to their establishment, and the amount at which they are assessed.

Such claims are decided upon after notice by the committee of direction by the prefectural council of the department in which the seat of the district is placed.

The prefectural council is bound in its decisions to conform itself to the general classification of the industries mentioned in Art. XLIV., and to the co-efficients fixed by the committee of management in accordance with Arts. XLVII. and L. Nevertheless, in cases where the proportions of risk assigned to an establishment by the committee of management is not of the kind applicable by virtue of the decree of classification to establishments of this class, the prefectural council fixes the co-efficient *ex officio*.

Art. LIX.—In default of the distributions of assessment by the committee of management within the first four months of the year, the Minister of Commerce and Industry designates the persons who

should proceed ex officio with such distribution, in accordance with the foregoing regulations.

4. *Fines.*

Art. LX.—Every false declaration of the number of workmen shall be punished by a fine of 10 fr. for each workman undeclared.

Moreover, all delays in making the declarations, every false declaration relative to the number of workmen and employes, the amount of their wages, or the period during which the business has been carried on, shall be punished by a fine of 16 fr. to 200 fr. In cases of offences repeated within five years the courts of justice may increase the fine up to 1,000 fr.

5. *Bonuses.*

Art. LXI.—The following persons are allowed to benefit by a reduction of assessment up to 30 per cent.:

1. Heads of establishments under Government inspection who produce annually a certificate given by the board of control or inspection, stating that they have taken the steps considered necessary for the prevention of accidents:

2. Heads of all other establishments who produce annually a similar certificate given to them by the engineers specially delegated for this purpose.

The amount of bonuses granted by virtue of the foregoing paragraph is borne by the other heads of establishments in the district, and increases to that extent the amount they have to subscribe.

A Government order shall decide the conditions under which the present article is applicable.

Section VII.—National Insurance Fund; Payment and Class of Compensation.

Art. LXII.—The insurance fund against accidents founded by virtue of the Law of July 11, 1868, takes the title of "The National Fund for Insurance against Accidents."

Art. LXIII.—The payment of incomes and pensions due by virtue of the present law is effected at Paris by the National Insurance Fund, and in the provinces through the receivers of the funds and the collectors.

These incomes and pensions are entered upon presentation of the copy of the decision of the Court of Arbitration, on the order of the President stating the terms agreed upon between the parties.

Art. LXIV.—Funeral expenses, temporary compensations, cost of administration, and generally all other expenses at the cost of the district, are reimbursed or paid on presentation of orders from

the representative of the district, issued in accordance with the decisions of the committee of management, or on communication of the judgment of the Justice of the Peace.

Art. LXV.—The incomes and temporary compensations granted to those injured by accidents, or their representatives, are not alienable, and cannot be seized or attached.

Art. LXVI.—After three years of unclaimed arrears these incomes are struck off the books of the National Fund, and their re-establishment gives no ground for claim of any kind for arrears prior to the demand for re-inscription.

Art. LXVII.—The right of obtaining or the enjoyment of such incomes shall be suspended by virtue of a criminal sentence and during the term of the penalty.

Art. LXVIII.—The subscriptions collected by virtue of Art. XLVI. and following, and the amount produced by fines inflicted under the present law, shall be paid into the National Fund and carried to the special account of each district.

Art. LXIX.—The following items shall be carried to the account of the reserve fund of the district:

1. The subscriptions which cannot be recovered:
2. The amount of discharges and reductions:
3. The interest on advances by the National Fund:
4. The compensations to sworn members of the Court of Arbitration and the costs of organisation of such courts incumbent upon the district:
5. The sums arising from the reduction or increase of the compensation, according to the conditions provided by Art. XXXIV:
6. The subscriptions recovered by virtue of the supplementary rolls:
7. The amount produced by the fines inflicted by application of the present law:
8. The arrears of incomes unclaimed during three years, according to Art. LXVI., and those of incomes suspended by the application of Art. LXVII.

Art. LXX.—The advances required for the due working of the fund shall be made by the Deposit and Lodgment Fund at a rate to be fixed by decree issued by the Minister of Commerce and Industry and the Minister of Finance.

During the first year the National Fund shall operate by means of capital belonging to the fund for insurance against accidents founded by the Law of July 11, 1868.

Art. LXXI.—The capital of the fund shall be employed in the same manner as that of the National Pension Fund.

Art. LXXII.—In each department an account of the sums paid or collected for the National Fund shall be kept at the office of the Paymaster-General.

Art. LXXIII.—Within six months of the promulgation of the present law the National Fund shall establish the tables required for the constitution of the incomes to be paid by it to the injured, their widows, children, or other relatives. These tables shall com-

prise all ages from the date of birth up to the age of 80 years. Pensions in favour of persons over 80 years of age shall be paid according to rates fixed for that age.

These tables shall be revised at least every five years.

Art. LXXIV.—A Government order shall decide the conditions of the organisation and working of the National Fund and the publicity to be given to its operations.

Section VIII.—Individual and Syndical Insurances; Special Guarantees.

Art. LXXV.—Heads of establishments who desire, either individually or in the form of a syndicate, to remain their own insurers shall make a declaration before December 1 every year to the prefect of their department and to the committee of management of their district. They shall at the same time prove the deposit with the National Fund of the guarantee to which they are subjected.

The articles of association of the syndicates shall be approved by the Minister of Commerce and Industry, after notice from the Council of State.

Art. LXXVI.—A Government order shall settle the basis and nature of the guarantees, taking into account the dangers of the industry, the number of workmen, the relative proportion of risk, and the hours of labour.

It shall set forth the rules according to which heads of establishments insured, either individually or as a syndicate, shall contribute to the cost of organisation and working of the Court of Arbitration.

It shall fix the procedure to be followed for the formation of such syndicates.

Art. LXXVII.—The amount of the interest on the guarantees shall be settled by the Minister of Commerce on the motion of the Director-General of the Deposit and Lodgment Fund.

Art. LXXVIII.—Compensation due in respect of accidents, provided for by the present law, shall in every case be decided in accordance with the foregoing regulations. Disputes arising between the persons injured, or their representatives, and the heads of establishments shall be settled in the manner prescribed by Art. XVII. and following.

The pensions allowed to the sufferers or their representatives shall be paid by the National Insurance Fund.

The capital required for the constitution of these pensions shall be taken from the guarantee fund and shall be replaced within 15 days from the date of application to the National Fund.

If the syndicates or heads of establishments neglect to conform to this condition the latter, whether they be syndicated or not, shall be officially subjected to the provisions of Sec. VI. of the present law, from and after the date when the security is no longer adequate.

Members of syndicates remain jointly and severally responsible toward the National Fund for the amounts advanced by it for the purchase of pensions, not entirely covered by the guarantee deposited.

Art. LXXIX.—Sufferers by accidents, or their representatives, have a privileged claim according to the terms of Art. 2102 of the Civil Code upon the securities lodged as a guarantee.

Section IX.—General Rules.

Art. LXXX.—The official reports, certificates, notarial acts, writs, judgments, and other legal documents made or delivered by virtue of and for the execution of the present law shall be delivered without fee, and stamped and registered gratis whenever the formality of registration is deemed necessary.

Art. LXXXI.—Every agreement contrary to the present law is, as such, null and void.

Art. LXXXII.—The present law shall take effect from and after January 1 of the year following its promulgation.

Art. LXXXIII.—Heads of establishments are bound under penalty of a fine of 16 fr. to 100 fr. to post up in every workshop a copy of the present law and the decree of classification prescribed by Art. XLIV.

Art. LXXXIV.—No derogation whatever is made with respect to the laws, ordinances, and regulations concerning pensions to workmen, apprentices, and labourers employed in the arsenals and navy yards, and those workmen regularly inscribed in manufactories of arms depending on the War Department.

A special law shall decide the consequences of accidents happening to sailors and fishermen in the exercise of their occupation.

APPENDIX X.

DRAFT GOVERNMENT BILL.

Section I.—Organization of Medical Aid.

Art. I.—Every French citizen, sick, and without resources receives gratuitously from the district, department, or the State, wherever his domicile entitles him to relief, medical aid at home, or if it be impossible to provide sufficient care at his place of abode, then in some hospital.

Foreigners in the same condition are regarded as French citizens in every case where the Government has made a treaty of reciprocal aid with the nation to which the foreigner belongs.

Art. II.—The district, department, or the state may at all times recover the cost, if necessary, either from each other or from all persons, associations, or corporations whose duty it is to provide medical aid for sick paupers, and particularly from those members of his family mentioned in Arts. 205, 206, 207, and 212, of the Civil Code.

With regard to foreigners, if their nation has made no reciprocal treaty with France, the claim may be made against the employer.

Art. III.—Each district is annexed with regard to the treatment of its sick to one or more of the nearest hospitals.

Should it be impossible to carefully attend the sick person at his abode, the medical officer shall deliver an order of admission to the hospital. This order shall be countersigned by the chief relieving officer or his delegate.

The hospital cannot claim payment from anyone for the daily treatment, so long as he presents the said order.

Art. IV.—In each department shall be organised, under the authority of the prefect and according to the provisions of the present law, a service of gratuitous medical aid for sick paupers.

The general council shall decide upon the conditions provided by Art. XLVIII. of the law of August 10, 1871 :—

1. On the organisation of medical aid ; the object and foundation of hospitals to which each district or syndicate of districts shall be attached :

2. On the share of the expense incumbent upon the district and the department.

Art. V.—In default of decision by the general council upon the objects mentioned in the foregoing article, or in case of suspension of the resolution in execution of Art. XLIX. of the law of August 10, 1871, regulations for the medical service may be

provided by a decree issued in the form of regulations of public administration.

Section II.—Domicile giving right to aid.

Art. VI.—Domicile giving right to aid is acquired :—

1. By habitual residence during one year in a district after having attained majority or becoming emancipated :

2. By affiliation. The child's domicile of aid is that of its father. If the mother survives the father, or if the child be illegitimate, but recognised by the mother only, its domicile is that of its mother. In case of separation or divorce between the parents the legitimate child takes the domicile of the parent to whom its education has been confided :

3. By marriage. The wife, from the day of her marriage, acquires the domicile of aid of her husband ; widows, and divorced or separated wives retain their domicile of aid previous to the divorce or separation.

As regards cases not provided for by this article the domicile of aid is the birthplace up to the date of majority.

Art. VII.—The domicile of aid is lost :—

1. By an uninterrupted absence of one year subsequent to majority or emancipation :

2. By acquiring another domicile of aid.

If such absence is caused by circumstances excluding all liberty of choice of residence, or by treatment in a hospital situated out of the usual place of abode of the sick person, this delay of one year only commences from the day when such circumstances no longer exist.

Art. VIII.—In default of a district domicile of aid, medical attendance is incumbent on the department in which the sick pauper shall have acquired his domicile of aid by habitual residence of one year.

When the sick person has neither a district nor a departmental domicile, the medical aid is incumbent on the State.

Art. IX.—Charity children have their domicile of aid in the department to which they belong, until they have acquired another such domicile.

Section III.—Relieving Office and list of those to whom relief is afforded.

Art. X.—In each district a relieving office shall ensure the service of medical aid.

The administrative commission of the relieving office is formed by the union of the administrative committees of the hospital and the relieving office, or by the latter only when no hospital exists in the district.

In default of both hospital and relieving office, the system of

relief is regulated by the law of May 21, 1873 (Arts. I. to V.) modified by the law of August 5, 1879, and still possesses, besides the functions devolving upon it by virtue of the present law, all the rights and functions appertaining to the relieving office.

Art. XI.—The chief relieving officer has the right to accept, in trust, donations and bequests, and to make, before permission be granted, all demands for the delivery thereof.

The decree of the President of the Republic or the prefect, which shall be subsequently delivered, shall take effect from the day of such acceptance.

The relieving office shall be represented in law and all civil acts by one of its members, elected by his colleagues for this object, at the commencement of every year.

The administration of foundations, donations, and bequests made in favour of the poor or of districts, for the purpose of securing medical aid, devolves upon the relieving office.

Relieving offices are subjected to the rules which regulate the administration and accounts of the hospitals, in all that is not contrary to the present law.

Art. XII.—The administrative committee of the relieving office shall be convened at least four times a year by its president.

It shall prepare, one month prior to the first ordinary session of the Municipal Council, the list of those who, possessing in their district a domicile of aid, should, in case of sickness, receive medical assistance, and shall revise such list one month prior to each of the three other meetings.

The medical officers or a delegate of the medical officer, the receiver, and one of the paymasters appointed by the sub-prefect, may be present at the meeting with a right to give their opinion, but not to vote.

Art. XIII.—The list of those entitled to medical aid should contain the names of all those who are so entitled, even when they are members of the same family.

Art. XIV.—This list is settled by the Municipal Council, which deliberates in secret committee, and is to be lodged at the secretary's office at the Town Hall.

The mayor shall give notice of the list being lodged by bills posted at the usual places.

Art. XV.—A copy of the list and of the official report stating that the formalities prescribed by the foregoing article have been complied with, shall be sent, at the same time, to the prefect of the district (arrondissement).

If the prefect considers that the prescribed formalities have not been observed, he shall refer the proceedings, within eight days of receiving the list, to the prefectural council, which shall decide, within eight days, and fix, if need be, the interval during which the cancelled proceedings shall be gone through again.

Art. XVI.—During a delay of twenty days from the date of being lodged, claims or objections to insertion on the list may be made by each inhabitant of the district.

Art. XVII.—The claims are peremptorily settled after the

mayor has been heard or duly summoned by a district committee composed of the sub-prefect of the arrondissement, or his representative, the councillor-general, or in the absence of the latter, a district Councillor-General in order of nomination, and of the Justice of the Peace of the district.

The sub-prefect, or in his absence, the Justice of the Peace shall preside over the committee.

Art. XVIII.—The president of the committee shall, within eight days, give notice of its decisions to the sub-prefect and to the mayor, who shall make the prescribed additions to, or erasures from, the list.

Art. XIX.—In urgent cases, during the interval between the meetings, the relieving officer may, with the mayor's sanction, temporarily admit, subject to the conditions of Art. XII. of the present law, any sick person not inscribed on the list.

Should it be impossible for the relieving committee to meet in time, such admission may be declared by the mayor, who shall report the same in secret committee at the next meeting of the Municipal Council.

Art. XX.—In case of accident or serious illness, the medical aid, afforded to persons without the required domicile in the district where the accident or illness has occurred, is incumbent on the district, under the conditions prescribed by Art. XXI., if no hospital exists in the district.

Admission of such persons to medical aid is declared by the mayor, who shall at once inform the prefect thereof, and report it to the Municipal Council at its next meeting.

The prefect shall acknowledge the receipt of the notice, and decide within ten days upon the claim to relief.

Art. XXI.—The expenses incurred by the district, except for the first ten days of treatment, shall be reimbursed by the department, upon a statement drawn up in accordance with the tariff adopted by the general council.

The department which has provided the aid may claim against the due parties. If the person aided has his domicile of aid in another department, the claim is made against the department, with reserve to the latter to claim in its turn from the proper parties.

Art. XXII.—Inscription on the list prescribed by Art. XII. holds good for one year, with regard to third parties, from the day when the person so inscribed quitted the district, but with reserve to the district to prove that such person is no longer in a position to need gratuitous medical aid.

Art. XXIII.—The prefect declares the admission to medical aid of sick paupers without a district domicile of aid.

He is bound to send at the beginning of every month to the departmental commission or the Minister of the Interior, according as the aid falls upon the department or the State, a list of the names of sick persons thus admitted to medical aid during the preceding month.

Section IV.—Aid in Hospitals.

Art. XXIV.—The daily expenses of sick persons sent to the hospitals at the cost of the districts, departments, or the State, is regulated by prefectoral decree on the proposition of the administrative committees of these institutions, and after notice from the general council of the department.

Art. XXV.—All rights derived from endowments or agreements are and remain reserved.

Section V.—Expenses, Ways and Means.

Art. XXVI.—The expenses of the medical aid service comprise :—

1. The fees of the physicians, surgeons, and midwives for aid rendered at the place of abode :

2. Medicines and apparatus :

3. The expenses of the sick person while in hospital.

These expenses are compulsory.

They are borne by the districts, departments, and the State, in the manner prescribed by Arts. XXVII. to XXIX.

Art. XXVII.—The districts whose special resources of medical aid and the ordinary resources figuring in their budget are insufficient to cover the cost of this service, are authorised to vote "extra pence" to the four direct taxes or town dues in order to procure the amount required.

The town dues voted by virtue of the preceding paragraph shall be submitted to the approval of the competent authority in accordance with Art. 137 of the law of April 5, 1884.

The portion which the districts may be held to require from the "extra pence," or the town dues, cannot be less than 10 per cent. nor more than 90 per cent. of the expenses to be covered.

Art. XXVIII.—Besides the costs incumbent on them by virtue of the foregoing articles, the departments are bound to grant to the districts which have been obliged to have recourse to "extra pence" or town dues, subventions increasing in proportion to the small rate of their "extra pence," but which cannot exceed 90 per cent., including the State subvention mentioned in the following article, nor be less than 10 per cent. of the product of these "extra pence" or town dues.

In case of insufficiency of the special resources of medical aid and the ordinary resources of their budget, they are authorised to vote "extra pence" to the four direct taxes in the measure necessitated by the present law.

Art. XXIX.—The State assists in the district and departmental expenses for medical aid by subventions granted to the departments in a proportion varying from 5 per cent. to 50 per cent. of the total of such expenses covered by "extra pence" or town dues, and which shall be calculated in inverse proportion to the departmental "extra penny" per square kilom., as set forth in Table A hereto annexed. The State is further charged with :—

1. The costs occasioned by the treatment of sick persons having no domicile of aid:
2. Costs of administration relating to the execution of the present law:
3. Exceptional aid in cases of public calamity.

Section VI.—General Provisions.

Art. XXX.—Districts, departments, relieving offices, and hospitals possessing, by virtue of endowments, property, the revenue of which has been devised by the founder for medical aid at the abode of paupers, are bound to contribute to the cost of the medical aid service up to the value of such revenue, except as provided by Art. XXV.

Art. XXXI.—The collection of all sums relating to medical aid is effected in the same manner as the collection of direct taxes.

All the receipts of the relieving office for which the laws and regulations have not provided a special mode of collection, shall appear in the statements prepared by the president.

These statements become executory as soon as they have been approved by the prefect or sub-prefect.

Oppositions, when the matter is within the jurisdiction of the ordinary courts, shall be summarily disposed of, and the relieving office may defend the same without the authorisation of the prefectural council.

Art. XXXII.—Certificates, writs, judgments, contracts, discharges, and other acts made by virtue of the present law, and exclusively relating to the medical aid service, are exempted from stamp duty and registration, gratis, when such formalities are required, without prejudice to the benefit of the law of January 22, 1857, on judicial aid.

Art. XXXIII.—All disputes relating to the execution either of the decision of the general council given by virtue of Art. IV., or of the decree issued by virtue of Art. V., and of the claims of administrative committees relative to the execution of the prefectural decree prescribed by Art. XXIV., are carried before the prefectural council of the plaintiff's department, and in case of appeal, before the Council of State.

Applications to the Council of State in cases mentioned in the preceding paragraph are dispensed from the intervention of a lawyer.

Art. XXXIV.—Districts or syndicates of districts which prove having fulfilled, in a complete manner, their duties in aiding their sick, may be authorised by a special decision of the Minister of the Interior, given after notice by the higher council of public relief, to have a special organisation.

Art. XXXV.—The provisions of the decree law of 24th Vendémiaire, Art. II., in all that they contain contrary to the present law are abrogated.

Table A.—SHOWING the Amount of the Subvention to be Allowed by the State to Departments for Medical Aid, in consideration of the Value of the Departmental “Extra Pence” per Square Kilometre.

Value of the “Extra Pence” per Square Kilometre.						State Subvention.	Expenses to be covered by the Department and the District.
	Fr.	c.	Fr.	c.		Per cent.	Per cent.
Under	2	00				50	50
From	2	01	to	2	50	45	55
	2	51		3	00	40	60
	3	01		3	50	35	65
	3	51		4	00	30	70
	4	01		5	00	25	75
	5	01		6	00	20	80
	6	01		8	00	15	85
	8	01		10	00	10	90
Above	10	00				5	95

APPENDIX Y.

SOCIALISTIC PROPOSAL FOR PROVIDING PENSIONS FOR OLD AGE.

Draft Bill.

Art. I.—A fund is instituted, independent of the budget, to be called “The General Pension Fund for aged persons.”

Art. II.—All French citizens of either sex, residing on French territory, shall benefit thereby from and after January 1 following the completion of their sixtieth year. Officials, workmen, and employés of the public force and public administrations, who receive pensions from the State or districts, are excepted, as well as those living exclusively on their own incomes, if such pensions or incomes exceed the amount of the pensions stated below.

Art. III.—The pension is paid by twelfths and in advance, at the birthplace of the person entitled thereto. In case such person has not retired to the district in which he was born, he shall receive the pension allowed to the natives of such district wherever may be his place of residence.

Art. IV.—The rate of pensions is as follows:—

	France.
For Paris	800
districts of over 100,000 inhabitants ..	700
“ from 50,000 to 100,000 inhabitants ..	600
“ ” 25,000 „ 50,000 „ ..	500
“ ” 12,000 „ 25,000 „ ..	400
“ under 12,000 inhabitants ..	300

Art. V.—Every year, at the beginning of December, each district shall make known to the central administration of the general pension fund the number of persons, then alive, born in the district who will have completed their sixtieth year on December 31, so that they may receive, before the end of the year, the sum required for the payment, from and after January 1, of the first twelfth.

This same sum shall be sent to them every month until the next year.

Art. VI.—At the end of each year the districts shall return to the central administration the sums remaining in their possession in consequence of death or unclaimed pensions, &c.

Art. VII.—In order to facilitate the execution of the two foregoing articles, each time death occurs the registrar of the place of decease shall inform the registrar of the place of birth, and mention of the death shall be made in the margin of the birth register.

Art. VIII.—The general pension fund is provided by:—

1. The sums to be derived from the suppression of inheritance in collateral line.

2. Succession duties paid by each heir upon the share coming to him after deduction of charges, and fixed at :—

	Fr.	Fr.			Per Cent.
1. Up to 10,000			..	..	1
2. From 10,000 to 15,000		15,000	..	..	2
3. 15,000 20,000		20,000	..	..	3
4. 20,000 25,000		25,000	..	..	4
5. 25,000 30,000		30,000	..	..	5
6. 30,000 50,000		50,000	..	..	10
7. 50,000 100,000		100,000	..	..	20
8. 100,000 500,000		500,000	..	..	40
9. 500,000 1,000,000		1,000,000	..	..	50
10. Upon sums exceeding 1,000,000 fr.			..	..	75

3. Similar duties payable upon donations during the donor's lifetime.

4. Donations and bequests to the pension fund.

5. Sums paid by the State in case the resources of the fund be insufficient.

Art. IX.—At the end of every year the capital not employed by the pension fund shall be handed over to the general budget.

Art. X.—Under any circumstances, pensioners shall not be prevented from improving their circumstances by means of insurance or membership of private benefit or pension societies or by work, but they cannot be admitted to public employment in the districts or the State.

Art. XI.—Foreigners who have become naturalized French citizens for more than twenty years, may claim under the same conditions as French-born citizens retiring pensions, which shall be paid them by the district in which they obtained naturalization.

APPENDIX Z

CLASSIFICATION OF THE POPULATION OF FRANCE.

According to statistics published by the General Statistics Office, the population of France is divided as follows:—

Industries.	Classified.	Not Classified.	Totals.
	Number.	Number.	Number.
Agriculture	17,698,402		
Industry.	9,289,207		
Transport service	1,020,721		
Commerce	4,247,764		
Public force	613,362		
Administration	714,027		
Liberal professions	1,094,233		
Independent persons	2,295,966		
			36,973,682
Without profession	..	237,899	
Not named	..	490,374	
Professions unknown	..	231,805	
			960,078
Totals.	..	..	37,933,760

It will thus be seen that agriculture alone absorbs one-half of the classified population.

Industry represents 25 per cent. of that population; commerce, about 11 per cent.; transport service, about 3 per cent.

Persons of independent means represent about 6 per cent. of the total population; finally, the public force takes up 1 per cent. of the total population.

The "public force" consists of the military and naval contingents under the flag and the armed and civil police. In this number are also comprised the families of officers, non-commissioned officers, soldiers, and men on active service.

The population living by agriculture does not attain 2 per cent. in the Department of the Seine, while in the Department of Lozère it is 83 per cent.

The southern and western departments contain more agriculturists than the eastern and northern.

On the other hand it would appear that the industrial population is distributed in exactly the reverse proportion to the agricultural.

In the Department of the Seine it consists of 40 per cent., while in the Department of Lozère it is only 6 per cent.

Under the head of "transport service" is comprised all employ-

ments connected with the post and telegraph offices, bridges and highways, rail and tramways, omnibuses, and navigation. This class of the population dominates in the towns on the coast and the river region.

The commercial population is very unequally divided; it is considerable in the Departments of the Seine, Rhône, Bouches du Rhône, Alpes-Maritimes, Nord, Seine-et-Oise, and the Seine-Inférieure.

The class of population the least subject to unequal distribution and variation is that of officials of every kind. The rate in most of the departments is 3 per cent of the population.

As regards persons of independent means—

	Per cent.
In the Department of Seine-et-Oise	22
Haute Garonne	15½
Seine	11½
Seine-et-Marne	10½
Alps, Corsica and Eure-et-Loir	10

In Auvergne, Savoy, and Brittany it does not attain 3 per cent.

Section II.—Usual Wages without Board.

I.—MEN'S WAGES.

Trades.	Usual Average Wages.		Absolute Increase.	Increase.
	1853.	1885.		
	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Per Cent.
Working jewellers and goldsmiths	2 74	4 20	1 46	53
Butchers	1 73	3 20	1 47	82
Bakers	1 90	3 61	1 72	88
Brewers	2 20	3 46	1 26	56
Brick and tile makers ..	1 88	3 09	1 21	63
Quarrymen	2 02	3 25	1 23	61
Coach builders	2 21	3 70	1 49	70
Coal heavers	1 83	2 80	0 97	54
Pork butchers	1 79	3 05	1 26	71
Hatters	2 12	3 69	1 57	72
Carpenters	2 20	4 00	1 80	81
Cartwrights	2 06	3 51	1 45	70
Copper smiths	2 21	3 57	1 36	61
List shoe and sandal makers	1 80	2 73	0 93	51
Rope makers	1 76	2 85	1 09	62
Boot and shoe makers ..	1 68	3 05	1 37	80
Cutlers	1 80	3 17	1 37	74
Slaters and tilers	2 16	4 02	1 86	85
Cabinet makers	2 20	3 68	1 48	67
Tinsmen, lamp-makers ..	2 04	3 43	1 39	67
Blacksmiths	2 42	3 96	1 54	69
Clock makers	2 43	4 20	1 77	70
Painters	2 40	3 91	1 51	62
Gardeners	1 78	3 02	1 24	71
Masons	2 07	3 68	1 61	77
Shoemaking smiths, farriers	1 94	3 33	1 39	71
Joiners	2 02	3 60	1 58	76
Pastry cooks	1 97	3 03	1 06	54
House painters	2 20	3 85	1 65	75
Handdressers	1 35	2 82	1 47	110
Plumbers	2 25	3 68	1 43	66
Stove and chimney builders	2 27	3 78	1 51	66
Potters	1 95	3 12	1 17	59
Bookbinders	1 92	3 00	1 08	56
Sawyers	2 01	3 69	1 68	83
Stone carvers (house decorators)	3 42	5 21	1 79	50
Saddlers	2 14	3 43	1 29	60
Locksmiths	2 16	3 55	1 39	63
Tailors	1 96	3 36	1 40	69
Stone cutters	2 39	4 01	1 62	67
Tanners	2 01	3 30	1 29	63
Carpet weavers	2 39	4 05	1 66	67
Dyers	1 91	3 19	1 28	66
Navvies	1 57	2 84	1 27	81
Weavers	1 43	2 62	1 19	82
Coopers	1 98	3 35	1 37	69
Wood turners	1 94	3 50	1 56	70
Metal turners	2 52	3 93	1 41	55
Basket makers	1 80	2 97	1 17	61
Nightmen	2 00	3 50	1 50	75
Glaziers	2 06	3 17	1 11	56
General average ..	2 06	3 46	1 40	67

The highest salary, it will be observed, is that paid to stone-carvers (for house-decoration), who in 1853 earned 3 fr. 42 c., and at present (1885) earn 5 fr. 21 c. Some of the more skilful workmen in this line were paid as much as 4 fr. 70 c. in 1853, and 6 fr. 65 c. in 1885.

Afterwards come jewellers and goldsmiths, whose wages were 2 fr. 74 c. in 1853, and 4 fr. 20 c. in 1885; after them come clock-makers, carpenters, stone-cutters, and metal workers.

The lowest wages are always those paid to weavers (1 fr. 43 c. in 1853, and 2 fr. 62 c. in 1885, and hairdressers 1 fr. 35 c. in 1853, and 2 fr. 82 c. in 1885). It is true that the latter are rarely paid by the day; they are boarded by the employer, and their profit is principally derived from the gratuities received from customers.

If we now consider the increase in wages which has taken place during the period we are engaged upon, we shall observe that the greatest rise has been among those who receive gratuities from their employers, such as butchers, bakers, wig-makers, &c.

Among trades entirely free such journeymen as masons, stone-cutters, sawyers, and others have mostly benefited by the rise: to them may be added navvies and nightmen, who, like them, are engaged in building and sanitary improvements.

The rate of women's wages, which was very much less than men's, has risen in quicker proportion.

II.—WOMEN'S WAGES.

Trades.	Usual Average wages.		Absolute Increase.	Increase.
	1853.	1885.		
	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Per Cent.
Washerwomen	1 25	1 80	0 55	44
Embroiderers	0 95	1 72	0 77	80
Staymakers	0 97	1 75	0 78	80
Dressmakers	1 15	1 85	0 70	60
Breeches makers ..	1 05	1 77	0 72	68
Lace makers	1 08	2 14	1 06	99
Artificial flower-makers	1 33	2 10	0 77	58
Waistcoat makers ..	0 85	1 82	0 97	114
Under-linen makers ..	0 80	1 64	0 84	105
Milliners	1 12	1 89	0 77	68
Shoe-stitchers	1 00	1 71	0 71	71
General average ..	1 07	1 82	0 75	70

The first result obtained from the above tables is that, on an average, women's wages only exceed by a third one-half of those paid to men: they nevertheless participate like men, and in a greater proportion, in the general increase which has taken place during the period from 1853 to 1885.

Lacemakers' wages have doubled in 30 years.

At present (1885) artificial flower and lacemakers earn the highest wages, and makers of under linen the lowest; but, altogether, there is little difference between the different trades, and it is only as heads of departments or contractors that women can earn sufficient remuneration.

Chapter II.—Wages paid to Parisian Workmen (without board).

1.—MEN'S USUAL WAGES.

Trades.	Usual Average Wages.		Absolute Increase.	Increase.
	1853.	1885.		
	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Per Cent.
Working jewellers and goldsmiths	4 25	7 50	3 25	70
Butchers	4 50	6 00	1 50	33
Bakers	5 00	7 05	2 05	38
Brewers	3 75	5 00	1 25	33
Brick and tile makers..	3 00	4 50	1 50	62
Quarrymen	3 00	5 00	2 00	67
Coach builders.. ..	4 00	6 00	2 00	50
Hatters	4 00	6 50	2 50	62
Coal heavers	3 00	5 00	2 00	67
Carpenters	5 00	8 50	3 50	70
Cartwrights	4 00	6 00	2 00	50
Coppersmiths	4 50	6 00	1 50	45
Rope makers	3 00	4 00	1 00	33
Boot and shoe makers	3 00	3 50	0 50	17
Cutlers	4 00	6 00	2 00	50
Slaters and tilers ..	5 00	7 75	2 75	55
Cabinet makers	3 50	7 75	4 25	121
Tinmen, lampmakers ..	3 50	5 00	1 50	43
Blacksmiths	5 00	7 00	2 00	40
Clockmakers	4 50	6 00	1 50	33
Printers.. ..	5 00	6 50	1 50	30
Gardeners	2 50	3 75	1 25	50
Masons	4 25	8 00	3 75	88
Shoeing smiths, farriers	3 65	6 00	2 35	64
Joiners	3 50	7 50	4 00	114
House painters	4 00	7 50	3 50	87
Hairdressers	2 00	3 00	1 00	50
Plumbers	4 00	6 00	2 00	50
Stove and chimney builders	4 00	7 50	3 50	75
Potters	3 50	5 00	1 50	50
Bookbinders	3 50	5 50	2 00	57
Sawyers.. ..	3 50	7 50	4 00	114
Stone carvers (house decoration)	4 00	7 00	3 00	75
Saddlers	4 00	4 50	0 50	12
Locksmiths	4 00	6 50	2 50	62
Tailors	3 00	5 00	2 00	67
Stone cutters	5 00	8 50	3 50	70
Tanners.. ..	3 75	5 00	1 25	33
Carpet weavers	4 00	5 00	1 00	25
Dyers	3 50	4 50	1 00	29
Navvies	3 00	5 00	2 00	67
Weavers	3 00	3 85	0 85	28
Coopers.. ..	4 25	5 00	0 75	18
Wood turners	4 00	5 00	1 00	25
Metal turners	5 00	7 00	2 00	40
Basket makers	3 75	4 50	0 75	20
Night men	4 50	5 00	0 50	11
Glaziers	3 75	5 50	1 75	47
General average	3 81	5 86	2 05	54

Wages are, it may be presumed, much higher in Paris than in the provinces, and this difference is explained both by the greater skill required in industries of a luxurious kind of which Paris has the privilege, and by the high rate of rent and the cost of living. There is a forced connection between the high price of living and the rate of wages; if this connection be severed pauperism increases, and every grade of human activity is affected by this crisis.

This is the reason why great enterprises are momentarily interrupted; wages are lowered, consumption is restricted, and if production does not follow at the same rate prices go down, and the crisis becomes general.

If at Paris wages have remained stationary, it is because a great number of workmen have quitted the capital for want of employment, and have gone to work at their respective trades elsewhere.

The equilibrium has come about of itself, and the immigration of workmen appears to have ceased.

It is quite understood that we only place ourselves at a general standpoint, more especially with regard to certain trades, for although information abounds as to wages in Paris, the extreme division of labour only allows average results to be obtained with difficulty. We believe, nevertheless, that we have succeeded in combining the figures furnished by the Chambers of Commerce with the information received direct from the Prefecture of Police.

The general tables of wages show to what extent they vary, according to the trades in which the hands are employed. We merely mention here the usual average wages paid without board.

With respect to the 47 trades mentioned at Paris, the first table confirms what has just been stated relative to the rise of wages in the capital, but this is itself the reason that wages only increase in a much less proportion in the provinces (54 per cent. instead of 66 per cent.), and that they even seem to be stationary at present (1885).

As in the provinces, it is the stone-carvers who earn the highest wages (4 fr. in 1853 and 7 fr. in 1885), and some of them received during the last-mentioned year as much as 8 fr. The recent rise will also be observed in wages paid to carpenters and stone-masons, a rise momentarily interrupted by the crisis in the building trade in 1885.

The lowest wages are paid to shoe and sandal makers and weavers. In the greater part of the other trades wages vary between 5 fr. and 6 fr.

II.—WOMEN'S USUAL WAGES.

Trades.	Usual Average Wages.		Absolute Increase.	Increase.
	1853.	1885.		
	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Per Cent.
Washerwomen.. ..	2 50	4 00	1 50	60
Embroiderers	2 00	3 00	1 00	50
Staymakers	1 50	2 00	0 50	33
Dressmakers	1 75	2 00	0 25	15
Breeches makers ..	2 50	4 00	1 50	60
Lace makers	2 30	3 00	0 70	30
Artificial flower makers	2 50	3 00	0 50	20
Under linen makers ..	1 50	2 00	0 50	33
Shoe stitchers	2 50	3 00	0 50	20
General average	2 12	2 99	0 87	41

Women's wages are also much higher in Paris than in the provinces; this accounts for the lessening of the tendency to increase now having completely ceased (1885).

There is but little difference between the wages for different specialities, but breeches-makers, including leather breeches-makers and embroiderers, now earn relatively high wages, while those of stay-makers and under-clothing makers are very low.

Artificial flower and dress-makers benefited the least by the rise.

Chapter III.—Various Information.

Section I.—Conditions of Apprenticeship in Small Industries.

The average term of apprenticeship, applied to the trades of which we have mentioned the rate of wages, would appear to be confined, except in Paris, to the following limits:—

					Months.
Boys, in 1871	..	..	..	..	27
„ 1885	..	..	..	..	25
Girls, in 1871	..	..	..	..	21
„ 1885	..	..	..	..	21

The premiums usually paid to the employer were:—

					Francs
Boys, in 1871	..	..	..	..	190
„ 1885	..	..	..	..	188
Girls, in 1871	..	..	..	..	84
„ 1885	..	..	..	..	95

There are nevertheless great differences in this respect according to the trades.

The longest term of apprenticeship for boys is with clock-makers, jewellers, and stone-carvers; the shortest is with quarrymen and navvies.

Apprenticeship is generally long in proportion to the delicate nature of the work and the future high rate of wages to be earned by the workmen.

The variation is less in trades in which girls are employed; the term of apprenticeship, however, is from 30 to 40 months for milliners, while for washerwomen it scarcely ever exceeds 16 months.

The same variation exists with respect to the premiums paid to employers, the highest being paid to clockmakers, jewellers, and carvers, and the lowest to weavers. In some trades, such as navvies and nightmen, apprenticeship, if it occurs, costs nothing.

The remark respecting the term of apprenticeship applies equally to the premiums paid to employers, being higher in proportion to the delicate and difficult nature of the work to be done, and the high rate of wages the workmen will be paid.

Conditions of apprenticeship are difficult at Paris. In a great number of trades apprentices are not taken, as most of the workmen come direct from the provinces, having already learnt their trade; in others apprentices are taken at par, *i.e.*, that in exchange for their services they are boarded and lodged by their employer. In some trades they are paid wages, and lodge with their parents.

Section II.—Annual Salaries of Trade Assistants.

Information on this subject was first obtained and mentioned in the statistics of 1871.

The table of annual salaries of trade assistants in 1885 showed that at Paris clerks and assistants boarded by their employers earned an average salary of 1,200 fr. to 1,800 fr. per annum, while in the provinces the average did not exceed 900 fr.

The same variations exist with regard to saleswomen and shop-girls, who earn at Paris, the former, 600 fr. to 1,500 fr. per annum (average 800 fr.), and in the provinces 500 fr. to 900 fr. (average 650 fr.), and the latter, 500 fr. at Paris and 450 fr. in the provinces.

Clerks and trade assistants are paid better in Paris than in the provinces, the variation being about the same with respect to saleswomen and shop-girls.

Section III.—Servants' Wages.

From 1853 to 1885 the annual wages of servants boarded in the houses where they were employed increased in the proportion stated below.

The two tables contain the average results relative to the provinces.

Further on we refer to the wages paid in the city of Paris.

PARIS.

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MEN.

Years.	Wages.					
	Personal Servants.			House Servants.		
	Usual.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Usual.	Maximum.	Minimum.
1853	Francs. 222	Francs. 309	Francs. 179	Francs. 254	Francs. 341	Francs. 203
1885	417	536	325	445	584	338
Absolute increase	195	227	146	191	243	155
Increase per cent.	88	73	82	76	72	77

WOMEN.

FRANCE.

Years.	Wages.								
	Personal Servants.			Cooks.			General Servants.		
	Usual.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Usual.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Usual.	Maximum.	Minimum.
	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
1853	163	219	128	190	260	154	181	244	145
1885	301	398	246	331	437	265	342	443	279
Absolute increase ..	138	179	118	141	177	111	161	199	134
Increase per cent. ..	85	82	94	75	68	65	91	82	93

The usual wages to male domestics have increased in 32 years by 88 per cent., which exceeds the proportional increase in wages paid to workmen without board.

Women's wages increased during the same interval by 85 per cent.

With respect to domestic servants in Paris, it was not possible in 1853 to learn even approximately the rate of their wages, which varied to a great extent according to the nature of their service, and especially to the class of house in which they were employed.

The economical law of supply and demand contributes just as much to vary the rate of such wages.

Nevertheless, for the years 1875 to 1885 information was supplied with regard to middle-class domestic service, the result of which was that the usual wages paid to male domestics varied between 600 fr. and 1,000 fr. per annum, and to females from 500 fr. to 600 fr.

It has been observed that in the provinces men's wages varied on an average, according to the nature of the service, from 325 fr. to 584 fr., and women's from 250 fr. to 450 fr.

Chapter IV.—Wages in Large Industries.

The Statistics Department sets forth in its preceding volume the method adopted to determine the average value of wages in large industries in the provinces: therefore, we shall not refer to them again; it will suffice to say that we have deducted the probable average value of wages from the natural classification of the particular value of such wages in each province.

The present volume contains, for the fifth time, the statement of wages in great industries, with the exception, however, of the mining and metal trades, the statistics of which depend on the Public Works Department.

The present statistics, which relate to 92 industries, resume for the period of five years, 1881 to 1885, the following summary of results:—

AVERAGE Wages in Great Industries.

Workmen.	Wages.											
	Department of the Seine.						Other Departments.					
	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1881.	1885.
Foremen	Fr. c. 6 95	Fr. c. 7 03	Fr. c. 7 45	Fr. c. 7 15	Fr. c. 7 13	Fr. c. 5 40	Fr. c. 5 41	Fr. c. 5 44	Fr. c. 5 42	Fr. c. 5 43	Fr. c. 5 42	Fr. c. 5 43
Overlookers	5 53	5 63	5 66	5 55	5 53	4 14	4 22	4 25	4 23	4 29	4 23	4 29
Workmen, properly so-called—												
Over 21 years	5 27	5 26	5 33	5 10	5 35	3 54	3 51	3 55	3 50	3 55	3 50	3 55
From 15 years to 21 years	3 50	3 43	3 53	3 50	3 48	2 35	2 38	2 43	2 43	2 45	2 43	2 45
Women	2 67	2 70	2 68	2 60	2 66	1 76	1 73	1 80	1 80	1 78	1 80	1 78
Children—												
Boys	1 78	1 87	1 98	1 80	1 85	1 31	1 33	1 35	1 34	1 33	1 34	1 33
Girls	1 45	1 47	1 62	1 60	1 52	1 06	1 08	1 10	1 10	1 07	1 10	1 07
Engine drivers, machinists	5 61	5 73	5 73	5 60	5 72	3 96	4 06	4 06	4 01	4 06	4 01	4 06
Journymen, labourers, carters, &c.	4 19	4 54	4 62	4 60	4 68	2 85	2 94	2 98	2 97	2 95	2 97	2 95

TABLE 1.

WAGES Statistics and General Summary in Small Industries for the Year 1885.

Paris.										Chief Centres of Departments.							
Number.	Trades.	Daily Pay to Workmen.						Usual Duration of Apprenticeship.	Usual Premium Paid to Employer.	Daily Pay to Workmen.						Usual Duration of Apprenticeship.	Usual Premium Paid to Employer.
		With Board.			Without Board.					With Board.			Without Board.				
		Usual.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Usual.	Maximum.	Minimum.			Usual.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Usual.	Maximum.	Minimum.		
		Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.			Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.		
1	Jewellers, goldsmiths	..	..	..	7 50	11 00	6 50	48	..	2 30	2 97	1 80	4 20	5 33	3 50	37	378
2	Washerwomen	*6 00	*12 00	*2 00	4 00	5 00	2 50	30	..	1 20	1 41	0 90	1 80	2 16	1 54	18	86
3	Butchers	†35 00	†45 00	†20 00	6 00	7 00	5 00	24	..	1 49	1 94	1 10	3 20	3 88	2 68	18	185
4	Bakers	..	..	..	7 00	10 00	6 00	..	..	1 44	1 80	1 14	3 61	4 24	2 95	17	156
5	Brewers	..	..	..	5 00	5 50	4 50	..	..	1 82	2 42	1 48	3 46	4 22	2 95	22	300
6	Brick and tile makers	..	..	..	4 50	9 00	2 70	..	..	1 68	2 17	1 38	3 09	3 71	2 60	21	..
7	Embroiderers	..	..	..	3 00	4 00	2 50	48	..	1 30	1 75	0 94	1 72	2 23	1 40	20	95
8	Quarry men	..	..	..	5 00	5 50	4 00	..	..	1 97	2 33	1 64	3 25	3 98	2 75	18	..
9	Coach builders	..	..	..	6 00	8 00	5 50	48	..	1 78	2 33	1 43	3 70	4 74	3 13	30	203
10	Coal heavers	†35 00	†45 00	†30 00	‡5 00	‡6 00	‡4 00	..	..	1 34	1 73	1 12	2 80	3 48	2 35	..	..
11	Pork butchers	†45 00	†60 00	†15 00	..	..	..	24	..	1 33	1 80	1 07	3 05	3 77	2 54	22	180
12	Hatters	..	..	..	6 50	9 00	4 00	6	100	1 73	2 25	1 32	3 69	4 44	2 87	21	225
13	Carpenters	..	..	..	8 50	9 00	8 00	..	..	2 12	2 58	1 78	4 00	4 81	3 42	25	193
14	Cartwrights	3 00	4 00	2 00	6 00	7 00	5 00	36	..	1 52	1 83	1 20	3 51	4 19	3 00	27	180
15	Coppersmiths	..	..	..	6 00	9 00	5 00	48	..	1 60	2 14	1 24	3 57	4 37	3 03	31	207
16	Shoe and sandal makers	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2 73	3 40	2 21	17	105
17	Rope makers	..	..	..	4 00	5 00	3 00	..	..	1 27	1 71	1 00	2 85	3 51	2 37	23	137
18	Boot and shoemakers	..	..	..	3 50	6 00	2 50	36	..	1 49	1 86	1 10	3 05	3 90	2 47	26	130
19	Staymakers	..	..	..	2 00	5 50	1 50	24	..	1 13	1 50	0 84	1 75	2 31	1 46	22	132
20	Cutlers	..	..	..	6 00	8 00	5 00	36	..	1 30	1 67	1 00	3 17	3 79	2 52	31	219
21	Dressmakers	..	..	..	2 00	4 00	1 50	36	..	1 12	1 48	0 88	1 85	2 35	1 56	25	102
22	Tilers and slaters	..	..	..	7 75	8 00	7 50	36	..	2 17	2 56	1 80	4 02	4 83	3 40	23	..
23	Breeches makers	..	..	..	4 00	6 00	3 00	24	..	1 04	1 35	0 81	1 77	2 27	1 39	20	84
24	Lace makers	..	..	..	3 00	4 50	2 00	48	..	..	..	..	2 14	2 72	1 70	20	96
25	Cabinet makers	..	..	..	7 75	8 00	7 50	48	..	2 05	2 50	1 71	3 68	4 51	3 08	34	226
26	Tin plate workers, lamp makers	..	..	..	5 00	10 00	4 00	36	..	1 69	2 05	1 30	3 43	4 15	2 88	29	190
27	Artificial flower makers—																
	Men	..	..	..	5 00	8 00	4 00	36	..	1 30	1 77	1 02	2 10	2 62	1 62	22	138
	Women	†50 00	†100 00	†25 00	3 00	3 50	1 50		..	1 70	2 11	1 29	3 90	4 84	3 30	30	154
28	Blacksmiths	..	..	..	7 00	9 00	6 00	..	..	1 70	2 11	1 29	3 90	4 84	3 30	30	154
29	Waistcoat makers	..	..	..	3 00	4 00	2 00	24	..	1 08	1 39	0 86	1 82	2 28	1 49	22	80
30	Clockmakers	..	..	..	6 00	8 00	5 00	48	..	2 10	2 70	1 58	4 20	5 21	3 45	36	317
31	Printers	..	..	..	6 50	9 00	6 25	36	..	..	..	..	3 91	4 87	3 20	30	208
32	Gardeners	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1 55	1 92	1 23	3 02	3 71	2 54	18	129
33	Seamstresses	..	..	..	2 00	3 50	1 50	24	..	1 07	1 41	0 86	1 64	2 17	1 42	21	90
34	Masons	..	..	..	8 00	9 00	7 00	24	..	2 30	2 74	1 96	3 68	4 50	3 10	21	..
35	Farriers	3 00	3 50	2 00	6 00	7 00	5 50	..	..	1 40	1 79	1 09	3 33	3 99	2 86	25	175
36	Joiners	..	..	..	7 50	8 00	7 00	24	..	1 77	2 21	1 42	3 60	4 28	3 09	30	185
37	Milliners	†60 00	†150 00	†25 00	..	..	..	24	200-600	1 07	1 42	0 84	1 69	2 30	1 40	25	122
38	Pastry cooks	†100 00	†150 00	†20 00	5 00	6 00	4 00	36	..	1 41	1 84	1 14	3 03	3 67	2 56	26	249
39	House painters	..	..	..	7 50	8 00	7 00	36	..	..	..	..	3 85	4 70	3 24	29	158
40	Wigmakers, hairdressers	†30 00	†45 00	†25 00	3 00	4 50	2 00	..	..	1 12	1 53	0 92	2 82	3 40	2 35	25	192
41	Boot stitchers	..	..	..	3 00	4 50	2 00	12	..	1 09	1 43	0 85	1 81	2 29	1 45	18	65
42	Plumbers	..	..	..	6 00	7 50	5 00	..	..	1 80	2 20	1 44	3 68	4 54	3 29	29	185
43	Stove and furnace makers	..	..	..	7 00	7 50	6 85	..	..	1 86	2 30	1 41	3 78	4 66	3 21	32	175
44	Potters	..	..	..	5 00	5 50	4 00	..	..	..	..	..	3 12	3 79	2 60	26	229
45	Bookbinders	..	..	..	5 50	6 00	5 00	36	..	1 35	1 80	1 07	3 10	3 81	2 52	30	151
46	Sawyers	..	..	..	7 50	8 00	7 35	8	..	2 14	2 60	1 73	3 69	4 55	3 16	16	..
47	Sculptors (decorative)	..	..	..	7 00	8 00	6 85	48	..	2 50	3 10	2 02	5 21	6 68	4 19	36	276
48	Saddlers	..	..	..	4 50	5 00	2 50	48	..	1 64	2 17	1 32	3 43	4 31	2 88	29	215
49	Locksmiths	..	..	..	6 50	7 50	6 00	36	..	1 70	2 21	1 48	3 55	4 42	2 98	30	215
50	Tailor's cutters	..	..	..	5 00	8 00	3 00	48	..	1 44	1 77	1 18	3 36	4 22	2 70	27	150
51	Stonecutters	..	..	..	8 50	12 00	8 00	..	..	..	..	..	4 01	5 07	3 47	24	..
52	Tanners	..	..	..	5 00	6 00	4 00	..	..	..	..	..	3 30	4 07	2 78	22	..
53	Upholsterers	..	..	..	5 00	7 00	4 00	42	..	..	..	..	4 05	4 84	3 18	31	197
54	Dyers	†75 00	†100 00	†50 00	4 50	7 00	4 00	42	..	1 47	1 96	1 20	3 19	3 84	2 65	26	238
55	Navvies	..	..	..	5 00	6 00	4 50	..	..	..	..	..	2 84	3 50	2 50	..	..
56	Weavers	..	..	..	3 85	4 00	3 00	24	..	..	..	..	2 62	3 21	2 10	11	110
57	Coopers	†40 00	†50 00	†30 00	5 00	6 00	4 85	24	..	1 55	1 86	1 27	3 35	4 06	2 70	25	185
58	Turners (wood)	..	..	..	5 00	6 00	4 50	36	..	..	..	..	3 93	4 84	3 33	31	184
59	Turners (metal)	..	..	..	7 00	9 00	6 00	36	..	..	..	..	3 93	4 84	3 3		

* Per week.

† Per month.

‡ Boat unloaders are paid by the job, and earn 7 fr. to 8 fr. per day.

WAGES in Great Industries, not including those connected with Mining and Metallurgy, in 1885.

* French Companies.—Markers and engine drivers are usually paid by the month, and the greater number of workmen, properly so-called, by the job. These wages have been calculated at the average rate per day.

By comparing these various wages with those of the workmen, properly so-called, of the full age of 21 years and upwards, the undermentioned average for the five years together is obtained :—

WAGES by Category Compared to those of a Workman
of Full Age.

	Department of the Seine.	Other Departments.	Together.
Workmen of 21 years and upwards ..	100	100	100
Foremen	134	154	142
Overlookers	105	119	110
Workmen of under 21 years	66	68	67
Women	51	50	50
Children—			
Boys	35	38	36
Girls	28	30	30
Engine drivers, machinists, &c. ..	109	115	111
Journeymen, labourers, carters, &c. ..	85	83	84

It may be concluded from these figures that, in comparison with the average wages of a workman of full age, that of workmen of under 21 years is less by one-third.

Foremen's wages exceed those of major workmen by 42 per cent.; those of overlookers exceed them by one-tenth.

Women's wages are just half that of men of over 21 years, boys' wages equal nearly one-third, and girls' a little more than one-fourth of such wages.

Journeymen are paid 16 per cent. less than workmen properly so-called; finally, the wages paid to engine-drivers is about equal to those of overlookers.

(See tables 1 and 2 facing.)

Table No. 3.—COMMERCIAL Assistants and Domestics, 1885.

EMPLOYMENT WITH ANNUAL WAGES.

Description of Employment.	Paris.			Other Cities.		
	Salaries and Wages.			Salaries and Wages.		
	Usual.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Usual.	Maximum.	Minimum.
	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
Shop assistants—						
Clerks, shopmen	1,200	1,800	1,000	918	1,419	642
Forewomen ...	800	1,600	600	639	891	469
Shop girls ...	480	600	200	485	676	347
Domestic servants—						
Personal servants	* ...	...	...	417	536	325
Coachmen, stable						
boys ...	...	...	...	445	584	358
Personal servants	...	...	...	301	398	246
Cooks ...	...	...	...	331	437	265
General servants	...	...	...	342	443	279

* These statistics were not given in 1885.

(See table 4 facing.)

WAGES in Great Industries in 1887, not including those connected with Mines and Metallurgy.

DEPARTMENT OF THE SEINE.

OTHER DEPARTMENTS.

Numbers.	Description of Industries.	Daily Pay of Workmen without Board.										Daily Pay of Workmen without Board.										
		Workmen Properly so Called.										Workmen Properly so Called.										
		Men.					Children.					Men.					Children.					
		Over 21 Years.	From 15 to 21 Years.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Overlookers, Markers.	Foremen.	Hours of Labour In Works.	Overlookers, Markers.	Foremen.	Hours of Labour In Works.	Overlookers, Markers.	Foremen.	Hours of Labour In Works.	Overlookers, Markers.	Foremen.	Hours of Labour In Works.				
Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Days.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Days.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Days.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Days.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Days.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Days.
PREPARATION AND TRANSFORMATION OF MINERAL SUBSTANCES.																						
METALS NOT INCLUDED.																						
1	Marble and stone saw works	5 85	5 00	...	...	...	343	4 20	5 10	5 10	343	4 20	5 10	5 10	3 70	2 45	1 25	1 25	0 80	3 70	2 90	300
2	Lime kilns	4 65	3 50	...	...	...	302	3 90	4 50	4 50	302	3 90	4 50	4 50	3 25	2 23	1 60	1 60	0 90	3 85	2 93	230
3	Brick and tile yards	5 45	3 55	...	...	...	305	3 90	4 70	4 70	305	3 90	4 70	4 70	3 40	2 30	1 78	1 78	1 10	3 85	2 95	260
4	Porcelain and stoneware factories	5 50	3 25	2 75	1 85	1 40	298	4 50	6 00	6 00	298	4 50	6 00	6 00	3 90	2 50	1 76	1 76	1 10	4 00	2 95	295
5	Glass and crystal factories	5 25	2 95	2 75	1 85	1 50	334	4 80	8 10	8 10	334	4 80	8 10	8 10	4 10	3 25	1 70	1 70	1 10	4 05	2 96	300
6	Looking-glass factories	...	...	...	...	...	...	4 80	8 10	8 10	...	4 80	8 10	8 10	4 10	2 75	1 60	1 60	1 00	3 60	2 76	325
WOOD, LEATHER, AND PAPER.																						
7	Wood saw yards	6 60	4 56	2 50	2 25	...	327	4 30	5 10	5 10	327	4 30	5 10	5 10	3 60	2 45	1 50	1 50	1 00	4 20	3 15	290
8	Tanneries	7 75	5 75	2 45	2 00	...	313	4 10	5 00	5 00	313	4 10	5 00	5 00	3 70	2 55	1 65	1 65	0 75	4 00	2 95	305
9	Paper and cardboard factories	6 95	5 10	3 30	2 50	1 35	313	3 90	5 10	5 10	313	3 90	5 10	5 10	3 20	2 20	1 60	1 60	0 95	3 75	2 75	310
10	Wall paper factories	8 15	6 00	3 65	2 05	1 00	301	4 20	5 80	5 80	301	4 20	5 80	5 80	3 90	2 60	1 95	1 95	1 15	5 30	3 10	310
CHEMICAL PRODUCTS.																						
11	Gas works	7 50	8 50	3 00	2 50	...	365	4 25	5 40	5 40	365	4 25	5 40	5 40	3 50	2 55	1 65	1 65	0 50	4 25	3 15	365
12	Sealine candle factories	7 00	4 70	2 50	1 75	1 65	333	4 10	4 90	4 90	333	4 10	4 90	4 90	2 25	2 25	1 80	1 80	1 10	4 10	3 20	300
13	Soap works	6 80	4 60	2 45	1 55	1 55	316	4 00	5 50	5 50	316	4 00	5 50	5 50	3 40	2 40	1 75	1 75	1 25	4 35	3 15	305
14	Chemical products in general	6 75	4 95	2 45	1 35	1 00	309	4 25	5 60	5 60	309	4 25	5 60	5 60	3 45	2 50	1 85	1 85	1 15	3 95	3 20	320
ARTICLES OF FOOD.																						
15	Sugar refineries	8 25	4 75	2 65	2 25	...	344	4 70	6 10	6 10	344	4 70	6 10	6 10	3 75	2 60	2 10	2 10	1 50	4 20	3 15	290
16	Native sugar refineries	...	...	...	...	...	...	4 80	6 36	6 36	...	4 80	6 36	6 36	3 95	2 75	2 05	2 05	1 30	4 30	3 20	110
17	Flour mills, paste factories	6 75	5 00	2 55	1 60	1 65	286	4 00	5 10	5 10	286	4 00	5 10	5 10	3 40	2 45	1 65	1 65	1 15	4 10	3 25	319
TEXTILE FACTORIES.																						
18	Raw silk spinning mills	7 50	5 50	3 00	1 50	...	310	3 50	4 80	4 80	310	3 50	4 80	4 80	3 10	2 10	1 65	1 65	1 00	3 75	2 75	280
19	Cotton spinning	7 90	5 75	3 05	1 85	1 60	283	4 00	5 30	5 30	283	4 00	5 30	5 30	3 35	2 30	1 95	1 95	1 15	4 05	2 90	298
20	Wool spinning	7 00	4 75	2 85	1 50	1 25	282	3 95	4 60	4 60	282	3 95	4 60	4 60	3 25	2 25	1 85	1 85	1 05	3 90	2 95	292
21	Hemp and flax spinning	6 10	5 00	2 00	2 00	1 25	309	3 85	4 50	4 50	309	3 85	4 50	4 50	3 30	2 20	1 95	1 95	1 10	4 10	2 95	295
22	Rope works	...	...	...	...	...	...	4 35	5 10	5 10	...	4 35	5 10	5 10	3 20	2 15	1 65	1 65	1 20	3 95	2 95	295
23	Silk weaving	8 00	6 50	3 75	1 75	1 50	220	4 35	5 25	5 25	220	4 35	5 25	5 25	3 20	2 20	1 85	1 85	1 15	3 85	2 85	295
24	Cotton, hemp, and flax weaving	...	...	...	...	...	...	3 95	5 25	5 25	...	3 95	5 25	5 25	3 30	2 30	1 95	1 95	1 20	3 75	2 80	300
25	Woollen blanket factories	...	...	...	...	...	...	4 05	5 10	5 10	...	4 05	5 10	5 10	3 25	2 25	1 85	1 85	1 10	4 00	2 85	297
26	Cloth and blanket factories	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5 10	5 10	...	...	5 10	5 10	3 30	2 35	1 95	1 95	1 10	4 00	2 95	285
27	Shawl factories	7 55	5 20	2 75	1 85	1 75	277	4 35	6 90	6 90	277	4 35	6 90	6 90	3 45	2 75	1 95	1 95	1 10	4 25	2 10	279
28	Dye and coloring works	...	...	...	...	...	...	4 45	5 35	5 35	...	4 45	5 35	5 35	3 75	2 65	1 85	1 85	1 20	4 45	3 05	296
29	Haberdashery and trimming factories	9 05	5 90	3 15	1 35	1 25	271	4 20	5 50	5 50	271	4 20	5 50	5 50	3 75	2 65	1 75	1 75	1 00	4 10	3 00	290
30	Felt hat factories	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
General average, 1887																						
RECAPITULATION OF YEARS.																						
1886	...	7 27	5 01	3 38	1 79	1 29	311	4 27	5 47	5 47	311	4 27	5 47	5 47	3 56	2 42	1 79	1 79	1 06	4 04	2 94	299
1885	...	7 51	5 45	3 48	1 86	1 52	306	4 29	5 45	5 45	306	4 29	5 45	5 45	3 58	2 49	1 77	1 77	1 07	4 16	2 98	291
1884	...	7 40	5 33	3 50	1 80	1 51	312	4 37	5 40	5 40	312	4 37	5 40	5 40	3 56	2 44	1 79	1 79	1 09	4 04	2 78	290
1883	...	7 45	5 26	3 53	1 98	1 62	314	4 25	5 44	5 44	314	4 25	5 44	5 44	3 55	2 43	1 80	1 80	1 10	4 06	2 98	291

TABLE 6.

Number, Average Wages, and Duration of Labour of the Various Categories of Workmen Employed in Mines.

Names of groups and basins.	Names of Departments.	Nature of the substances extracted.	Average daily output.	Hands Employed in the Mine.										Hands Employed Outside the Mines.										Estimated addition to daily wages arising from allowances of fuel, rent, pensions, aid, &c.	Average daily wages per head.		Average daily wages per head without distinction, and including the estimated addition.	Average number of working days in 1889.	Average annual wages per head without distinction, and including the estimated addition.	
				Number					Average number of hours present per day in mine.	Average number of hours of actual labour per day.	Average daily wages				Number				Average number of hours present at the mine per day.	Average number of hours of actual labour per day.	Average daily wages									
				Of miners properly so-called.	Of other skilled workmen.	Of unskilled workmen.	Of children from 12 to 16 years.	Total.			Of miners properly so-called.	Of other skilled workmen.	Of unskilled workmen.	Of children.	Of men.	Of women.	Of children.	Total.			Of men.	Of women.	Of children.		In the mine.	Above ground.				
I.—MINERAL COMBUSTIBLES.																														
1. COAL AND ANTHRACITE.																														
NORD AND PAS-DE-CALAIS.				tons						hrs. m.	hrs. m.	fr. c.	fr. c.	fr. c.	fr. c.					hrs. m.	hrs. m.	fr. c.	fr. c.	fr. c.	fr. c.	fr. c.	fr. c.			francs.
Valenciennes	Nord, Pas-de-Calais	Coal ..	46,623	24,059	4,451	10,148	4,349	43,007	9 25	8 8	5 30	4 41	3 62	1 86	6,508	674	1,969	9,151	10 51	9 50	3 39	1 64	1 47	0 45	4 47	2 83	4 63	299	1,384	
Le Boulonnais	Pas-de-Calais	" ..	10	24	6	5	..	35	9 0	8 0	2 75	2 00	2 00	..	5	..	..	5	12 0	10 0	2 00	..	..	0 07	2 51	2 00	2 53	263	665	
Total and average			46,633	24,083	4,457	10,153	4,349	43,042	9 4	8 8	5 30	4 41	3 62	1 86	6,513	674	1,969	9,156	10 51	9 50	3 39	1 64	1 47	0 45	4 46	2 83	4 63	299	1,384	
LOIRE.																														
Saint-Etienne	Loire	Coal ..	11,198	3,197	2,474	4,175	64	9,910	10 45	7 58	5 68	4 87	3 85	2 00	4,298	267	391	4,956	10 5	8 10	3 30	2 00	1 55	0 25	4 69	3 09	4 40	297	1,307	
Sainte-Foy-l'Argentière	Rhône	" ..	150	56	24	65	..	145	11 0	10 0	4 75	4 55	3 35	..	44	..	10	54	11 0	11 0	2 50	..	1 50	0 05	4 09	2 32	3 66	263	963	
Communay	Isère	Anthracite ..	36	26	9	3	..	38	11 0	10 0	4 60	3 75	3 60	..	26	..	..	26	11 0	10 0	2 90	..	..	..	4 34	2 88	3 76	258	970	
Total and average			11,384	3,279	2,507	4,243	64	10,093	10 45	8 0	5 66	4 86	3 84	2 00	4,368	267	401	5,036	10 5	8 12	3 30	2 00	1 55	0 25	4 67	3 09	4 39	297	1,304	
GARD.																														
Alais	Gard, Ardèche	Coal ..	6,546	3,410	1,023	2,920	192	7,545	11 8	8 51	5 14	4 11	3 75	2 43	2,851	536	395	3,782	10 20	10 2	3 33	1 46	1 35	0 24	4 39	2 86	4 12	297	1,224	
Aubenas	Ardèche	Anthracite ..	121	73	2	93	..	168	10 28	9 0	3 89	4 50	2 85	..	80	2	..	82	11 0	10 0	2 45	1 50	..	0 14	3 32	2 43	3 17	298	945	
Le Vigan	Gard	Coal ..	13	..	..	39	..	39	10 30	9 0	..	..	3 59	..	21	..	..	21	12 0	9 30	2 61	..	..	0 03	3 56	2 62	3 28	292	958	
Total and average			6,680	3,483	1,025	3,052	192	7,752	11 7	8 53	5 11	4 12	3 75	2 43	2,952	538	395	3,885	10 21	10 2	3 30	1 46	1 35	0 24	4 36	2 85	4 10	297	1,218	
BURGUNDY AND NIVERNAIS.																														
Le Creusot and Blanzay	Saône-et-Loire	Coal ..	4,446	2,499	696	572	266	4,033	9 23	8 13	4 70	4 45	3 44	1 98	1,903	454	461	2,818	11 47	10 52	3 74	1 73	1 49	0 56	4 30	3 05	4 34	304	1,319	
Decize	Nièvre	" ..	527	341	109	226	80	756	9 0	8 0	4 16	3 70	3 10	2 40	308	130	26	464	11 0	9 0	3 16	1 84	2 01	0 35	3 59	2 72	3 61	326	1,177	
Epinae	Saône-et-Loire	" ..	378	200	108	133	..	441	10 0	8 30	3 85	3 50	2 85	..	153	30	20	203	12 0	10 30	2 75	1 50	1 25	0 10	3 46	2 42	3 23	284	917	
Aubigny-la-Ronce	Côte-d'Or	" ..	15	38	1	17	..	56	10 0	9 0	3 25	3 25	2 75	..	19	..	..	19	12 0	11 0	2 75	..	..	0 20	3 09	2 74	3 20	286	915	
La Chapelle-sous-Dun	Saône-et-Loire	" ..	167	56	41	59	..	156	9 0	8 0	3 80	3 50	2 50	..	93	..	..	93	12 0	11 0	2 71	..	..	0 10	3 29	2 70	3 19	299	954	
Bert	Allier	" ..	162	119	11	70	..	200	10 0	9 0	4 57	4 10	3 00	..	92	5	28	125	11 0	10 0	2 65	1 60	1 20	0 28	3 99	2 29	3 62	278	1,007	
Sincey	Côte-d'Or	" ..	13	20	3	3	..	26	9 0	8 0	3 60	3 00	2 75	..	8	..	..	8	11 0	10 0	3 00	..	..	0 35	3 42	3 00	2 68	164	604	
Total and average			5,708	3,273	969	1,080	346	5,668	9 24	8 14	4 55	4 22	3 20	2 08	2,576	619	535	3,730	11 41	10 35	3 52	1 74	1 49	0 48	4 09	2 94	4 11	304	1,249	
TARN AND AVEYRON.																														
Aubin	Aveyron	Coal ..	2,665	1,600	647	571	..	2,818	9 31	8 26	4 05	4 04	3 53	..	970	499	37	1,506	10 10	9 30	3 15	1 40	1 33	0 26	3 95	2 53	3 71	290	1,076	
Carmaux	Tarn	" ..	1,295	567	265	497	..	1,329	8 45	7 59	5 19	5 04	3 34	..	661	..	115	776	10 2	10 0	3 31	..	1 99	0 20	4 47	3 11	4 17	233	972	
Rodez	Aveyron	" ..	46	44	2	20	..	66	10 0	9 0	3 76	2 57	3 14	..	26	18	..	44	12 0	10 51	2 50	1 50	..	0 04	4 30	2 11	3 47	262	903	
Saint-Perdoux	Lot	" ..	4	9	..	3	..	12	12 0	10 0	3 17	..	2 25	..	5	..	..	5	12 0	10 0	2 50	..	..	..	3 00	2 50	2 76	114	315	
Total and average			4,010	2,220	914	1,091	..	4,225	9 17	8 18	4 36	4 33	3 44	..	1,662	517	152	2,331	10 10	9 42	3 20	1 40	1 83	0 23	4 11	2 71	3 85	271	1,043	
BOURBONNAIS.																														
Commentry	Allier	Coal ..	3,016	1,388	612	546	..	2,546	10 0	9 0	4 31	3 99	3 21	..	713	106	204	1,023	11 0	10 0	3 24	1 45	1 51	0 17	4 00	2 70	3 80	284	1,079	
Saint-Eloy	Puy-de-Dôme	" ..	520	390	..	328	..	718	10 0	8 30	4 30	..	3 32	..	218	33	5	256	12 0	10 30	2 65	1 46	1 47	0 13	3 85	2 50	3 62	312	1,129	
L'Aumance	Allier	" ..	118	59	13	53	..	115	9 24	8 24	3 41	3 52	2 91	..	63	..	2	65	11 30	10 17	2 90	..	1 50	0 10	3 24	2 85	3 20	243	778	
Total and average			3,654	1,837	625	917	..	3,379	10 0	8 52	4 28	3 98	3 23	..	994	139	211	1,344	11 16	10 8	3 09	1 45	1 51	0 16	4 00	2 67	3 74	287	1,074	
AUVERGNE.																														
Brassac	Haute-Loire, Puy-de-Dôme	Coal and anthracite ..	848	198	260	334	..	792	9 59	7 59	4 75	4 50	4 25	..	282	22	36	340	11 34	9 50	2 78	1 67	1 50	0 07	4 12	2 57	3 73	311	1,160	
Champagnac	Cantal	Coal ..	220	60	68	107	..	235	9 30	7 30	5 00	4 25	4 25	..	72	23	9	104	12 0	11 0	3 25	1 50	1 25	0 23	3 99	2 68	3 82	300	1,146	
Langenc	Haute-Loire	" ..	45	13	..	27	..	40	10 0	8 0	4 50	..	3 25	..	26	..	..	26	12 0	10 30	3 43	..	..	0 03	3 65	3 43	3 60	250	900	

TABLE 6—continued.

Number, Average Wages, and Duration of Labour of the Various Categories of Workmen Employed in Mines.

Names of Departments.	Nature of the substances extracted.	Average daily output.	Hands Employed in the Mine.								Hands Employed Outside the Mines.										Estimated addition to daily wages arising from allowances of fuel, rent, pensions, aid, &c.	Average daily wages per head.		Average daily wages per head without distinction, and including the estimated addition.	Average number of working days in 1889.	Average annual wages per head without distinction, and including the estimated addition.								
			Number					Average number of hours present per day in mine.	Average number of hours of actual labour per day.	Average daily wages				Number				Average number of hours present at the mine per day.	Average number of hours of actual labour per day.	Average daily wages														
			Of miners properly so-called.	Of other skilled workmen.	Of unskilled workmen.	Of children from 12 to 16 years.	Total.			Of miners properly so-called.	Of other skilled workmen.	Of unskilled workmen.	Of children.	Of men.	Of women.	Of children.	Total.			Of men.		Of women.	Of children.											
II.—IRON ORE.																																		
NORTH-EAST.			tons						hrs. m.	hrs. m.	fr. c.	fr. c.	fr. c.	fr. c.					hrs. m.	hrs. m.	fr. c.	fr. c.	fr. c.	fr. c.	fr. c.	fr. c.						frances.		
Meurthe-et-Moselle	..	Iron	..	..	..	..	..	6,760	1,802	238	67	59	2,166	10 0	9 7	4 43	4 00	3 19	2 19	468	..	22	490	10 44	10 3	3 60	..	1 64	0 07	4 28	3 68	4 20	274	1,150
Saône-et-Loire	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	390	139	22	24	8	193	10 0	9 0	4 15	3 80	3 50	2 25	26	..	..	26	10 0	10 0	3 00	..	..	0 30	3 95	3 00	4 14	263	1,089
Jura	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7	3	..	1	..	4	10 0	9 0	3 50	..	2 50	..	1	..	..	1	10 0	9 0	2 50	..	..	..	3 25	2 50	3 10	112	347
Total and average			..	..	7,157	1,944	260	92	67	2,363	10 0	9 7	4 41	3 99	3 26	2 19	495	..	22	517	10 44	10 3	3 57	..	1 64	0 09	4 26	3 49	4 20	273	1,146			
SOUTH-EAST.																																		
Isère	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	187	194	48	19	..	261	10 2	9 2	3 35	3 04	2 74	..	73	10	20	103	12 0	10 0	2 40	1 60	1 50	0 24	3 18	2 15	3 17	299	948
Ardèche	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	268	95	8	88	..	191	10 0	9 0	4 01	3 50	2 91	..	35	..	1	36	10 0	10 0	2 55	..	1 25	0 13	3 48	2 50	3 46	270	934
Gard	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	151	84	..	..	..	84	9 0	9 0	4 24	..	..	..	35	..	..	35	10 54	9 34	3 17	..	..	0 20	4 24	3 17	4 02	256	1,029
Var	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	35	10	2	8	..	20	10 0	9 30	4 00	4 50	3 00	..	4	4	..	8	10 0	10 0	3 25	1 50	..	..	3 65	2 28	3 29	303	997
Savoie	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	..	4	..	..	4	10 0	10 0	..	3 70	..	..	1	..	..	1	10 0	10 0	4 00	..	..	2 00	3 70	4 00	4 00	257	1,028
Total and average			..	..	642	383	62	115	..	560	9 52	9 2	3 73	3 18	2 89	..	148	14	21	183	11 18	9 55	2 72	1 57	1 49	0 18	3 50	2 44	3 53	280	989			
SOUTH-WEST.																																		
Pyrénées-Orientales	..	Iron	..	..	..	..	..	126	106	10	2	..	118	10 41	10 0	3 76	3 30	2 50	..	98	..	1	99	11 32	10 0	3 04	..	1 00	..	3 70	3 02	3 39	295	676
Ariège	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	66	83	7	106	6	202	7 21	6 21	2 10	2 43	2 01	1 00	9	2	1	12	7 50	6 25	2 28	1 25	1 00	0 44	2 04	2 00	2 46	173	425
Aveyron	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	45	19	..	..	..	19	10 0	9 0	3 60	..	..	..	6	..	..	6	10 0	9 0	3 20	..	..	0 49	3 63	3 20	4 01	308	1,235
Tarn	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	3	10	..	6	..	16	10 0	9 0	3 40	..	2 50	..	5	2	..	7	10 0	9 0	2 40	1 20	..	0 02	3 06	2 14	2 83	83	235
Aude	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	4	4	..	2	..	6	12 0	10 0	3 00	..	2 50	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2 83	..	2 83	334	945	
Total and average			..	..	244	222	17	116	6	361	8 46	7 52	3 09	2 90	2 05	1 00	118	4	2	124	11 0	9 33	2 96	1 23	1 00	0 22	2 71	2 88	2 97	234	695			
NORTH-WEST.																																		
Manche	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	100	45	..	41	..	86	10 0	9 30	5 00	..	3 70	..	45	..	..	45	12 0	11 0	3 49	..	..	..	4 38	3 49	4 08	205	836
Calvados	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	154	54	6	10	..	70	10 0	9 0	4 21	4 35	3 10	..	3	..	..	3	10 0	10 0	4 0	..	..	0 13	4 06	4 00	4 18	285	1,191
Total and average			..	..	254	99	6	51	..	156	10 0	9 30	4 57	4 35	3 58	..	48	..	..	48	11 52	11 0	3 52	..	..	0 05	4 24	3 52	4 12	234	964			
General total and average for iron ore			..	..	8,297	2,648	345	374	73	3,440	9 51	8 55	4 25	3 77	2 82	2 10	809	18	45	872	10 56	10 0	3 31	1 50	1 53	0 12	4 00	3 18	3 95	268	1,059			

III.—METALLIC ORES.

[illegible]

Lozère	Sulphureted antimony and silver galena	38	116	6	44	..	166	10 11	9 16	3 54	2 76	3 18	..	100	31	7	105	10 0	10 0	2 84	1 26	0 75	..	3 33	2 23	3 00	102	400
Corse	Sulphureted antimony	8	161	5	75	..	268	9 50	9 8	3 76	4 25	3 00	1 50	67	81	7	105	10 0	10 0	2 84	1 26	0 75	..	3 33	2 23	3 00	102	400
Gard	Iron pyrites, calamine, blend, and sulphureted antimony	58	94	12	54	..	160	9 32	9 0	4 05	4 92	3 00	..	88	12	38	138	11 16	10 0	3 25	1 67	1 50	0 04	3 76	2 62	3 27	265	867
Ardèche	Silver galena and blend	2	51	6	25	..	82	10 0	10 0	3 61	3 83	2 80	..	45	9	7	61	11 0	10 44	2 82	1 34	1 86	0 20	3 38	2 50	3 19	154	491
Drôme	Calamine	25	18	..	25	..	43	10 0	9 0	4 00	..	3 00	..	8	10	9	27	10 0	10 0	2 75	2 00	1 50	0 04	3 42	2 07	2 92	232	682
Total and average		236	582	34	308	27	951	9 47	9 3	3 91	4 26	3 08	1 50	460	183	104	747	10 37	9 58	3 00	1 50	1 50	0 05	3 58	2 42	3 12	236	736
SOUTH-WEST.																												
Aveyron	Silver galena and blend	94	139	46	91	1	277	8 19	7 19	4 39	3 76	3 06	1 50	158	78	3	239	11 0	9 38	2 96	1 62	1 50	0 19	3 85	2 50	3 41	314	1,071
Tarn	" " " " " " " " " "	60	65	22	42	..	129	9 0	8 0	3 50	2 75	2 40	..	104	20	2	126	10 0	9 0	2 40	1 20	1 25	0 11	3 00	2 20	2 72	198	538
Hautes-Pyrénées	Silver galena	65	90	7	23	..	120	12 0	10 0	4 25	5 00	3 00	..	70	..	57	127	12 0	10 0	3 00	..	1 40	..	4 00	2 30	3 14	281	882
Basses-Pyrénées	Blend and pyritic copper	22	93	5	31	7	136	8 0	8 0	4 43	5 00	3 00	1 90	59	26	3	88	10 0	10 0	3 00	1 50	1 40	..	3 99	2 50	3 41	120	409
Ariège	Silver galena, blend, and calamine	9	54	4	30	11	99	11 54	10 19	5 23	4 75	3 27	2 00	46	24	10	80	12 0	11 0	1 91	0 88	1 20	0 06	4 27	1 50	3 09	267	825
Aude	Silver galena and bioxide of manganese	24	46	7	20	3	76	11 30	10 0	3 26	3 43	2 60	1 67	52	10	3	65	12 0	10 0	2 33	1 10	1 25	0 07	3 04	2 09	2 67	282	753
Dordogne	Iron pyrites	13	14	2	..	..	16	12 0	10 0	3 50	3 50	..	..	4	..	..	4	12 0	10 0	3 50	..	..	0 08	3 50	3 50	3 58	344	1,232
Haute-Garonne	Galena and blend	..	2	1	3	..	6	12 0	11 0	6 00	5 00	3 15	..	2	5	..	7	12 0	11 0	4 25	1 50	..	..	4 33	4 00	4 20	35	147
Pyrénées-Orientales	Bioxide of manganese	..	4	1	4	..	9	10 0	10 0	3 00	2 75	2 50	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2 78	..	2 78	122	339
Total and average		287	507	95	244	22	868	9 40	8 37	4 22	3 71	2 90	1 91	495	163	78	736	11 5	9 50	2 49	1 41	1 37	0 09	3 74	2 26	3 15	250	788
NORTH-WEST.																												
Ille-et-Vilaine	Silver galena and blend	200	285	30	140	..	455	8 0	7 0	3 10	3 10	2 80	..	354	147	28	529	11 0	9 45	2 59	1 30	1 10	..	3 00	2 15	2 55	276	704
Morbihan	Tin	..	24	4	..	..	28	8 0	8 0	2 50	2 50	..	..	14	..	..	14	11 0	10 0	2 10	..	..	..	2 50	2 07	2 36	306	722
Côtes-du-Nord	Silver galena and blend	..	11	2	..	..	13	8 0	7 0	3 00	3 00	..	..	4	..	..	4	12 0	10 0	2 15	..	..	..	3 00	2 25	2 82	279	787
Total and average		200	320	36	140	..	496	8 0	7 4	3 05	3 03	2 80	..	372	147	28	547	11 0	9 45	2 57	1 30	1 10	..	3 00	2 15	2 54	278	706
General total and average for metallic ores other than iron		1,436	1,856	240	871	49	3,016	9 15	8 21	3 79	3 76	3 04	1 68	1,623	524	268	2,415	10 57	9 57	2 82	1 39	1 37	0 04	3 54	2 85	3 24	256	829

IV.—VARIOUS SUBSTANCES.

SOUTH-EAST.																												
Ain	Asphaltic lime	38	21	..	17	..	38	11 44	10 27	3 48	..	3 00	..	45	..	2	47	10 0	10 0	3 00	..	2 00	..	3 26	2 96	3 09	286	884
Gard	" " " " " " " " " "	15	24	..	12	..	36	10 45	10 20	3 67	..	2 75	..	28	..	..	28	11 2	10 58	2 50	..	..	..	3 36	2 50	2 98	183	545
Haute-Savoie	" " " " " " " " " "	6	9	..	2	..	11	10 0	10 0	3 00	..	2 75	..	1	..	..	1	10 0	10 0	2 75	..	..	..	3 00	2 75	3 00	189	567
Total and average		59	54	..	31	..	85	11 6	10 20	3 49	..	2 90	..	74	..	2	76	10 23	10 21	2 81	..	2 00	..	3 27	2 79	3 04	232	705
CENTRE.																												
Saône-et-Loire	Boghead and bituminous schists	478	276	45	57	2	380	11 0	8 30	3 83	3 47	3 19	2 25	73	..	7	80	12 0	11 0	2 89	..	1 75	0 17	3 67	2 79	3 66	260	1,025
Allier	Bituminous schists	155	99	13	32	..	144	8 41	7 38	3 30	3 07	2 97	..	25	..	..	25	10 53	9 48	2 64	..	..	0 06	3 21	2 64	3 18	234	744
Total and average		633	375	58	89	2	524	10 22	8 16	3 67	3 38	3 11	2 25	98	..	7	105	11 44	10 43	2 83	..	1 75	0 14	3 54	2 75	3 54	267	945
SOUTH-WEST.																												
Vaucluse, Basses-Alpes	Sulphur	14	23	..	6	1	36	9 46	9 16	4 07	..	3 50	2 00	8	..	..	8	9 0	9 0	3 44	..	..	..	3 90	3 44	3 79	200	758
Hautes-Alpes	Graphite	1	4	..	..	..	4	9 0	7 0	2 00	..	..	..	1	..	..	1	8 0	8 0	1 50	..	..	..	2 00	1 50	1 90	70	133
General total and average for various substances		707	456	58	126	3	643	10 26	8 35	3 65	3 39	3 08	2 17	181	..	9	190	11 5	10 31	2 84	..	1 81	0 11	3 51	2 79	3 45	255	880

V.—ROCK SALT AND SALT SPRINGS.

NORTH-EAST.																												
Meurthe-et-Moselle	Rock salt	286	83	..	38	..	121	8 23	7 53	4 66	..	3 39	..	36	..	1	37	11 19	10 26	3 50	..	1 50	0 08	4 26	3 46	4 18	297	1,241
Doubs, Jura, Haute-Saône	Salt springs	164	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	8	..	..	8	10 7	9 52	4 00	..	..	0 01	..	4 00	4 01	313	1,252
Total and average		450	83	..	38	..	121	8 23	7 53	4 66	..	3 39	..	44	..	1	45	11 6	10 20	3 51	..	1 50	0 08	4 26	3 56	4 15	297	1,233
SOUTH-WEST.																												
Landes	Rock salt	45	13	..	3	..	16	10 30	9 0	3 10	..	3 25	..	6	..	..	6	10 30	9 0	2 50	..	..	..	3 13	2 50	2 95	282	832
Basses-Pyrénées	" " " " " " " " " "	40	13	..	3	..	16	12 0	10 0	3 25	..	3 25	..	5	..	..	5	12 0	10 0	2 50	..	..	..	3 31	2 50	3 14	279	876
Total and average		85	26	..	6	..	32	11 15	9 30	3 19	..	3 25	..	11	..	..	11	11 11	9 30	2 50	..	..	..	3 22	2 50	3 05	280	854
General total and average for salts		535	109	..	44	..	153	9 0	8 17	4 32	..	3 39	..	55	..	1	56	11 7	10 10	3 38	..	1 50	0 06	4 04	3 35	3 92	295	1,156

TABLE 5.

Extract from the "Annuaire Statistique de la Ville de Paris," 1883.

COMPARATIVE Table of Wages Per Day of 10 Hours.

Description of Trades.	Wages in 1789.*	Wages in 1844.†	Wages in 1860.		Wages in 1868.		Wages in 1873-1874.		Wages in 1875-1876.		Wages in 1877-1878.		Wages in 1880.		Wages in 1882.	
			Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.	Fr. c.
Navvies	..	2 75	3 25	4 0	4 0	4 0	4 0	4 0	4 0	4 0	4 50	5 0	5 50	6 0	6 0	6 0
Masons	..	4 0	5 0	5 25	5 25	5 50	5 50	5 50	5 50	5 50	6 50	7 50	7 50	8 0	8 0	8 0
" assistants ..	..	2 40	3 10	3 30	3 30	3 50†	4 0\$	4 0\$	4 0\$	4 0\$	4 0	5 0	5 0	5 0	5 0	5 0
Paviors	..	3 75	4 50	5 0	5 0	5 0	5 0	5 0	5 0	5 0	6 0	7 0	7 50	7 50	7 50	7 50
" assistants ..	..	2 25	3 10	3 50	3 50	3 75	3 75	3 75	3 75	3 75	4 25	4 50	4 50	5 0	5 0	5 0
Joiners	..	3 25	4 0	4 50	4 50	5 0	5 0	5 0	5 0	5 0	6 0	7 0	7 0	8 0	8 0	8 0
Stone masons ..	..	4 50	5 25	5 50	5 50	5 50	5 50	5 50	5 50	5 50	7 50	7 50	7 50	8 50	8 50	8 50
Carpenters ..	..	4 0	5 0	6 0	6 0	6 0	6 0	6 0	6 0	6 0	7 0	8 0	8 0	9 0	9 0	9 0
Locksmiths, blacksmiths ..	..	4 50	6 50	6 50	6 50	7 0	7 0	7 0	7 0	7 0	7 50	7 75	7 75	8 75	8 75	8 75

* *Vide* "Traité d'architecture pratique," by J. E. Monroy, 1789.

† *Vide* "Manuel du vérificateur," by Lemoine, 1844.

‡ In summer.

§ In winter.

N.B.—Since 1860, the statistics have been furnished by the "Série des prix de la Ville" (City tariff). The figures quoted are those paid, *i.e.*, the strict remuneration for hours of work accomplished, consequently trilling compensations paid by contractors to their men for wear and tear of tools are not included in these figures.

The number of hours of each day's labour, for want of positive information, could not be obtained for 1879.

(For Table 6 see facing Table.)

PARIS.

APPENDIX BB.

SOCIALISTIC LABOUR BUREAU.

Articles of Association.

The following Articles of Association were adopted at the meeting of December 5, 1891, and their adoption constitute the organic working of the Labour Bureau.

All those details not mentioned in the Deed of Constitution are to form the subject of interior regulations.

Art. I.—In conformity with the resolution of the International Socialist Working-men's Congress at Brussels, a National Bureau of Labour is founded in France.

Art. II.—The objects of the National Bureau of Labour are :—

1. To centralise and publish if need be all information, statistics, &c., relating to the organisation and action of workmen and of Socialists.

2. To actively correspond with like institutions in other countries.

Art. III.—The National Bureau of Labour is composed of delegates belonging to the organisations mentioned below.

Art. IV.—Such delegates shall be adherents of some one or other syndicate.

Art. V.—The following organisations shall form the National Bureau of Labour :—

1. The Federation of French Labour Exchanges, proposed by the six other organisations.

2. The National Federation of French Syndicates and corporate bodies of workmen.

3. The Central Revolutionary Committee.

4. The Federation of Socialist Workmen in France.

5. The Working-men's Party.

6. Independent Socialists.

7. All national federations of trade, composed of a minimum of 15 syndicates, corporate bodies, or local sections which have been founded at least six months.

Art. VI.—The delegation to the National Bureau of Labour shall be composed of the following, viz., four members of the Federation of French Labour Exchanges, two members of each of the other six organisations, and one member of each of the other national federations of trades.

Art. VII.—The mode of nomination, duration of powers, partial or total renewal of the delegates of the National Bureau of Labour,

and all other conditions relating to the performance of their duties shall be left to the care of each of the organisations interested.

Art. VIII.—The presence of one-half plus one of the organisations of the Bureau shall be necessary to ensure the validity of the deliberations. If this condition be not fulfilled, an adjourned meeting shall be held with the same order of the day, and all decisions and resolutions adopted on this occasion shall be binding, whatever may be the number of the organisations represented.

Art. IX.—The National Bureau of Labour shall see that the powers taken upon them by its members are regular and in order. It is prohibited to exercise at the same time elective political duties and those of a representative of the Bureau of Labour.

Art. X.—The duties of secretary at each meeting shall be taken in turn by each secretary of the organisations. Correspondence with foreign committees shall be signed by the secretary to the meeting (proposed by the Working-men's Socialist Revolutionary Party, the Labour Exchange, the Federation of Unions and Syndicates, Socialist French Workmen, and the Workmen's Party).

Art. XI.—The meetings shall be held at the Paris Labour Exchange.

Art. XII.—Meetings shall be held twice a month, except in cases of urgency.

Art. XIII.—Permanent daily attendance of two hours every evening shall be established, and taken in turn by the delegates of the organisation.

Art. XIV.—In urgent cases the secretary of the meeting last held shall convoke the National Bureau of Labour.

Art. XV.—The orders of the day and the official resolutions shall be published in the "Bulletin de la Bourse du Travail," communicated to the official organs of the organisations represented, and placed at the disposal of the Press.

Art. XVI.—The National Bureau of Labour shall adopt regulations for its interior management.

Art. XVII.—The expenses of the National Bureau of Labour shall be covered by a monthly subscription from each of the organisations and federations represented. This subscription is fixed at 10 fr. payable monthly in advance. All receipts must be authorised by the Bureau.

APPENDIX CC.

Judgment delivered by the Court of Cassation on June 22, 1892.

Considering Art. VII of the Law of March 21, 1884, and Art. 1382 of the Civil Code:

Whereas Art. VII above referred to provides that every member of a professional syndicate shall have absolute right to withdraw from such association whenever he shall think fit:

Whereas, since the abrogation of Art. 416 of the Penal Code, threats of strike, when not accompanied by violent acts or fraud on the part of a syndicate to an employer, are permissible when their object is the defence of professional interests; they are illicit when the object is to force the employer to discharge a workman because he has withdrawn from the syndicate or refuses to rejoin it:

Whereas in such a case there is interference with the rights of others which, should such threats take effect, renders the syndicate liable for damages in favour of the discharged workman:

Whereas in reality Joost maintained, both on appeal and in the civil action, that in the month of March, 1889, he sent in his resignation as a member of the Syndicate of Working Printers on Textile Fabrics at Jallieu-Bourgoin, and that the syndicate declined to accept the same; that he also offered to prove by evidence that in execution of a resolution passed in the month of August following by the same syndicate, at a meeting where his expulsion had been decided in consequence of his persistent refusal to continue to be a member of the association, two of the defendants presented themselves to Brunel Lecomte, at whose works he was employed, for the purpose of insisting upon his discharge under threats of immediate strike, and that the said Brunel Lecomte gave way to such threats:

Whereas, if the decision in question allowed Joost to prove the assertions made in the first of such statements it refused to allow him to prove the others.

That by ruling in this sense it had violated the provisions of the law above cited.

For such motives (the Court) reverses and annuls, with all legal consequences, the order of the Court of Appeal of Grenoble of October 28, 1890.

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FRANCE.

PARIS.

The Marquis of Dufferin to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Paris, November 10, 1892.

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith to your Lordship a Despatch as marked in the margin, which I have received from Sir Joseph Crowe, on the Proposed Reduction of Interest in Savings Banks' Deposits.

I have, &c.

(Signed) DUFFERIN AND AVA.

Report on the Proposed Reduction of Interest in Savings Banks' Deposits.

ABSTRACT of Contents.

	PAGE
Debates on reform of savings bank law in France	1
Amount of French savings invested, and competition of savings banks and ordinary banks	2
Savings bank investments are all controlled by the State; the State's liabilities	2
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Fixed rate of interest on savings to be abolished; the State to invest savings in other securities besides the funds	4
Power to be given to the Caisse des Dépôts to issue loans	5
Statistics of post office savings banks' deposits	5
Proposed reduction of interest	5

Public attention was called this summer to the question of French savings banks in France by a series of debates which took place (1433) savings banks.

Amount of
French
savings
invested.

in the French Chambers. The subject was interesting because Frenchmen are investors in savings banks to the amount of about 150,000,000*l.*; but it became all the more so when, in consequence of amendments moved by certain reformers in the Chamber of Deputies, an entire class of French securities fell 9 per cent. on the Paris Stock Exchange in a fortnight, and it appeared that competition might arise between holders of savings banks' accounts and holders of communal and landed redeemable debentures whose investments were not less, as stated on good authority, than 120,000,000*l.*

Competition
of banks and
savings
banks.

The bank which suffered most rapidly and intensely from the effects of the amendments above alluded to was the *Crédit Foncier*, the shares of which fell from 1,220 fr. on May 19 to 1,119 fr. on June 3.

The time has not yet come for examining in detail the reform of savings bank legislation in this country.

State control
and liability.

The Bill under debate in the French Parliament is the outcome of a long agitation, which has been going on for the last 7 years; but the interests which it involves may be judged from the fact that French savings have within the last 20 years been artificially drawn into savings banks which are under State control, whilst ordinary banks have proportionally lost the custom of the public. The force of the current which produced this diversion may be estimated by this—that the liabilities of the State to savings banks' depositors in France rose from 4,240,000*l.* in 1837 to 14,160,000*l.* in 1848, 19,320,000*l.* in 1870, and 144,000,000*l.* in 1891.

Action of
savings bank
legislation.

In 1848, when deposits were repayable at call, a run on the banks led to a consolidation in State paper; in 1870 repayments were limited to 2*l.* in cash, the rest being paid in quarterly treasury bills, with interest at 5 per cent.; but in 1871 the faculty of withdrawal at call was restored.

At the latest of these dates the savings banks were under the control of the State as they are now. The lowest deposit was 10*d.*, the highest 12*l.*, in any week, the limit of investment being 40*l.* When this limit was obtained the depositor was bound to reduce his account or buy, through the channel of the bank, 10 fr. (8*s.*) of Rente in 4½ per cent. if that paper was not at par, or 3 per cent. if 4½ per cent. was at a premium.

It was under this system that French investments in savings banks rose to 20,000,000*l.* The subsequent increase of these investments to 144,000,000*l.* was brought about chiefly by the establishment of post-office savings banks in 1881 and a change in the amounts which investors were privileged to pay in.

Interest on
savings.

Under this reform private or municipal savings banks now give interest at the rate of 4 per cent.; postal banks pay at the rate of 3·25 per cent., of which 0·25 per cent. is deducted for cost of administration. Banks of both sorts are, with some slight exceptions, under the obligation of sending their daily takings into the *Caisse des Dépôts et Consignations*, which is a department of the French Treasury set apart for the receipt and

administration of State deposits, caution moneys, &c., and this Caisse is bound by law to invest the savings of the banks in "values of the French State."

But more important changes were those affecting the amounts which the public were to be allowed to invest, and the check which was imposed on depositors in the event of withdrawals in periods of panic.

The law extended the limit of investment from 40*l.* to 80*l.* In case of inevitable necessity decrees might be issued, subject to approval by the Council of State, limiting the right of withdrawal of each depositor to 2*l.* per fortnight.

But times were peaceable, confidence was unlimited, and a new class of investors—the "eighty pounders," as they may be called—preferred the 4 per cent. guaranteed by the State to the interest of banking establishments, of credit no doubt unimpeachable, yet lower than that of the State; and the result was a rapid increase of the amounts entrusted to the Treasury for investment.

It has been said, no doubt with truth, that nothing can be better than a system which promotes saving and gives the person who saves an absolute security. But the effect of the system has been to concentrate investments in the hands of the Government, to make the State a forced purchaser of its own securities, and to produce a rise in those securities which brings them nearly up to par. Any accident, political or financial, might create a panic which would lead to a run on the savings banks. These would call on the Caisse des Dépôts et Consignations. The Caisse, instead of buying, would be constrained to sell, and many persons might be ruined, whilst many others would be put to dire straits.

Action of the
Caisse des
Dépôts.

According to a return published by the Caisse des Dépôts et Consignations in the "Bulletin de Statistique" of January of this year, it appears that the capital of savings banks invested by the State in 3 per cent. redeemable and unredeemable stock in 1891 in the name of savings banks' depositors was 10,068,000*l.*, as against 9,725,244*l.* in 1890. It is not necessary to suppose that all small investors whose money has passed out of the savings banks into the funds will require at a moment's notice to realise their savings. But if they did, and we must recollect that they are usually necessitous, a French Minister of Finance cannot contemplate without dismay the prospect of being forced to pay 7,600,000 savings banks' depositors even a fraction of the 3,600,000,000 fr. (144,000,000*l.*), which are due at call. In 1887, when the Comptoir d'Escompte threatened to collapse, Mr. Rouvier, then, as now, Minister of Finance, induced all the great banking houses to make advances to keep the bank going; and it is no secret that one of his arguments was the danger which all banks were liable to incur if a panic ensued and a run on the savings banks was the result. The same danger was similarly averted in 1889.

Possible run
on savings
banks.

Previous to the year 1885 the Government had been in the

habit of taking the money of the savings banks in account current, and it has been held, no doubt correctly, that the State used the amounts so obtained to pay for public works. But in 1885 Parliament limited the sum which the Caisse des Dépôts could dispose of as floating cash to 100,000,000 fr. (4,000,000*l.*), and this limitation had the effect of checking the progress of public works and preventing the State from making advances to railways and chambers of commerce.

Effects on
investments
generally.

At the same time, the constant purchase of State securities raised their price in the market, and 3 per cent. stock came to be worth between 98 per cent. and 99 per cent.

The credit of the State has come to be so good that the value of securities has increased. State securities rising, the value of the effects of savings banks has been increased, whilst their income has proportionally diminished.

Fixed rate of
interest to be
abolished.

Various drafts of measures for facilitating the investment of savings banks' moneys, and diminishing the risk to the State, have been made in past years; and these were recently sifted and brought into shape by a committee of the Chamber of Deputies, of which Mr. Aynard and Mr. Léon Say are members. The report of these gentlemen embodies a proposal to abolish the fixed rate of interest payable to depositors, and in its stead to establish a system of dividends proportioned to the interest earned by the Caisse des Dépôts et Consignations. The Caisse is to have all the deposits of the savings banks without exception. Its power is to be extended to the purchase for the account of savings banks not only of values of the State, but of values guaranteed by the State, negotiable obligations of departments, communes, and chambers of commerce, and land and communal obligations of the Crédit Foncier and foreign or home bills, and securities payable in gold to the amount of 4,000,000*l.* Depositors are to be allowed to withdraw 20*l.* at sight, but no sums above 20*l.* can be taken out without 3 months' notice, and Government is empowered, if necessary, to limit the withdrawals in cash to 50 fr. (2*l.*) per fortnight. Other arrangements are stipulated, which may require to be stated when the Bill becomes law.

At present the proceedings have been interesting only as showing what tendencies the majority in Parliament are inclined to follow. The Law must be read three times, and then be sent to the Senate. It has already been amended in such a way as to cause a fall in the shares of the Crédit Foncier. It was on the motion of Mr. Siegfried that the Chamber of Deputies decided that the Caisse des Dépôts et Consignations should be allowed to purchase for the account of savings banks obligations not negotiable (Mr. Siegfried objects to negotiable securities) of departments, communes and chambers of commerce, and obligations landed and communal of the Crédit Foncier.

It is not known whether this amendment will be maintained. But the fears which its opponents express are based on the conviction that if the Caisse des Dépôts et Consignations is allowed

to make loans directly to departments and communes, it will take the place of the Crédit Foncier, whose debentures are redeemable in instalments at fixed intervals extending over years, and whose operations will thus be checked if not stopped altogether, and at a heavy loss. In addition to this, Mr. Aynard has stated that "savings banks' depositors, who have better security than anyone else for the repayment of the moneys they invest, have no security as to the time when their money will be repaid." The State cannot at a crisis get cash for the immediate payment of 144,000,000*fr.* locked up in savings banks or funded securities bought out of small savings. But surely communal and departmental obligations will have no market under similar circumstances, and Mr. Siegfried's amendment would in this view not only be no reform at all, but an additional danger.

The Caisse
des Dépôts
and depart-
mental loans.

Comparative returns which have recently been made public prove that the sums paid into the national (post office) savings banks rose from 261,999,132 *fr.* (10,479,964*fr.*) in 1890 to 323,344,062 *fr.* (12,933,760*fr.*) in 1891.

Statistics of
Post Office
Savings
Banks'
deposits.

This gigantic stride has now effectually alarmed the Minister of Commerce, who thinks it urgent that the interest on savings banks' deposits should be reduced.

In agreement, therefore, with Mr. Léon Say's report, Article 98 of the Budget Law, which it is hoped may soon pass through Parliament, enacts that the interest payable to ordinary savings banks by the Caisse des Dépôts et Consignations is in future to be determined on the basis of the income derived by the Caisse from securities and accounts current of savings banks.

Proposed
reduction of
interest.

The variations in the rate of interest are fixed at indivisible fractions of 0.25 c. per 100, and the rate for 1893 is to be 3 *fr.* 50 c. instead of 4 *fr.* per cent. as it has been hitherto. Meanwhile the effects of the Savings Bank Bill, amended as it has been by Mr. Siegfried, are still visible on the market for banking securities, and the shares of the Crédit Foncier, which, as above noted, had fallen in May and June from 1,220 *fr.* to 1,119 *fr.*, are now at 1,105 *fr.*

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FRANCE.

REPORT ON
POULTRY YARDS AND DAIRY FARMS IN FRANCE.

*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty,
JULY, 1893.*

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FRANCE.

PARIS.

The Marquis of Dufferin and Ava to the Earl of Rosebery

My Lord,

Paris, June 24, 1893.

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith to your Lordship copy of a very interesting Report on the Produce of the Poultry Yard and Dairy Farm in France, which has been drawn up with great care and diligence by Mr. Townley, Second Secretary in Her Majesty's Embassy, and I have much pleasure in drawing your Lordship's attention to its very creditable character.

I have, &c.

(Signed) DUFFERIN AND AVA.

Report on the Poultry Yards and Dairy Farms in France.

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14,000,000 of the inhabitants of France, *i.e.*, three-quarters of the agricultural population of the country, are occupied in "la petite culture," namely, in the cultivation of farms not exceeding 20 acres, which are 4,802,697 in number, and cover an area of 24,900,214 acres, or a quarter of the grand total of the land in France capable of cultivation.

From information which has been supplied from French Normandy official sources it appears that the principal products of "la petite culture" in Normandy are butter, eggs, chickens, grain,

vegetables, fruit, milk, cheeses, and, in a certain degree, cattle, sheep, and pigs.

The principal outlets for the sale of his products which are open to the small holder are the local fairs and markets, the watering-places, seaports, and the Paris, Rouen, and Elbeuf markets. The products which are not sold on the spot are delivered—either by means of carts or hand portorage—by the producers themselves to the consumers.

There are no special facilities to assist the producer in the disposal of his products on the markets, but the transactions are generally easily executed.

There are not in all parts intermediaries between the producers and consumers, though they do exist, and more especially in the export trade. These intermediaries are nearly always wholesale dealers, except in the Seine Inférieure, in which department there are a large number of small and medium dealers who either re-sell to the consumers or to the wholesale dealers. These intermediaries forward the products to Paris, Rouen, Elbeuf, Jersey, England, and even as far as Brazil.

The price of an article at the moment of its sale to the consumers is about 20 per cent. more than it was when first sold by the producer to the dealer.

Brittany
products.

In Brittany the chief products are chickens, butter, eggs, milk, cheese, apples, and vegetables of all sorts. The principal outlets for the disposal of their goods which are within the reach of the small cultivators are the country fairs and markets, local grocers, and the supply required by the large towns.

The producers go to the markets in their carts; butter is carried in baskets, and fowls in cages on wheels. The markets are held at fixed hours, which are settled by municipal decrees.

There are intermediaries between the producers and the consumers (more especially for the sale of fowls, butter, and eggs), who are generally small or medium dealers and commission agents, and the products are sent principally to the large towns of Brittany, to Paris, and to England.

The price paid by the consumer for a product is generally from 13 per cent. to 20 per cent. more than that obtained by the producer from the dealer, but in the Department of Morbihan it is often as much as from 30 per cent. to 75 per cent. more.

The following further information upon the subject has been obtained from reliable local sources:—

Butter.

A firm of butter exporters established at Valognes writes that markets are established in each town of any importance. Small farmers attend those nearest their dwellings once or twice a week and sell their products to dealers, who buy the butter according to its quality, and eggs according to their size.

The butter is then sorted and prepared before being packed for exportation to England, where there are agencies for its sale. The same process is gone through with the eggs.

Facilities of transport to the market, either by rail or by road (which are numerous and fairly well kept) exist.

QUIMPER (FINISTÈRE).

In Brittany small cultivators take their products to the fairs and markets, or on Sundays to the town-hall, where they sell them to small merchants, who re-sell them to wholesale dealers. These latter send the products:—

1. To the towns of the sea-coast.
2. To the French markets, chiefly Paris.
3. To the English markets.
4. Butter is largely exported to Brazil.

The persons who act as intermediaries between the producers and the consumers have no special standing—at one time it is a kind of pedlar, who does business in the villages; on other occasions they are large export merchants, who do business on a very large scale.

The collection and transport of the products to the places of exportation is effected easily and with regularity. The same cannot be said of the sale of these products, for articles of commerce which are only worth 8 c. to 10 c. each in Finistère, are sold in Paris the following day for 50 c.; the difference is swallowed up by the railways, the brokers, and the retail merchants.

The transport system between Finistère and London is by the St. Malo route, and, both as regards cost and speed, is unsatisfactory. At the present moment considerable attention is being directed to the question of transport to the towns in the south and west of England, and it is probable that very shortly (it is said in this month*) the products of Finistère will be loaded on the coast on board fast boats for Liverpool and the big markets of the west.

The English markets offer an outlet to the produce of the dairy, the farmyard, and the market garden, but great care must be exercised by the merchants to deliver their wares in good condition while conforming to English habits.

NOYAZ.

Noyaz, which is situated at a distance of 45 kiloms. (about 28 miles) from Nantes, is at some distance from the important centres of consumption, to which it is, however, joined by railways. It is essentially an agricultural district, and the mild and damp climate is favourable to the culture of grass, while the system of tenancy in vogue encourages small holdings; hence farmyards are numerous, and the country products are chiefly butter, fowls, and eggs, in addition to which cattle are reared in some numbers, and to a lesser degree horses, while a sufficient quantity of corn is grown.

There is a market at Noyaz every Monday, and a fair before each of the principal festivals, that is to say, about eight a year.

* A direct service between St. Malo and Swansea has been established, the shipments on the third voyage being 10 times more considerable than those on the first, and it is hoped by this route to supply not only the west of England, but Manchester, &c.

The producers bring their pigs, fowls, butter, and eggs to market, where they are disposed of, either to the travelling merchants who frequent the markets or to the local dealers.

Spring chickens weighing 1 kilo. to $1\frac{1}{2}$ kilos. (2 lbs. to $3\frac{1}{4}$ lbs.) the pair fetch up to $4\frac{1}{2}$ fr., that is to say, 3 fr. per kilo. (about 1s. 3d. a pound), but these prices do not last long, and in June the price is not more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ fr. or 2 fr. per kilo. (about $7\frac{1}{2}$ d. to 10d. a pound). In July the price sinks still lower, and remains down until the following February or March.

The butter is bought by three merchants at Noyaz as well as by travelling dealers. It is sorted and prepared before being sold again either as butter for the table or as cooking butter. The more inferior quality is especially prepared and exported, chiefly to the colonies.

Another important product of this part of the Loire Inférieure is a dark heather honey of an inferior quality, which is produced in large quantities. The hives are brought to market in their natural state, after the destruction of the bees, and are there sold by weight. The honey is then run out of the comb into large vats, after which it is either put into jars and exported, or sold retail in the country. The wax is washed and melted, and then made up into small cakes.

The cereals are bought by merchants residing at Noyaz, who at the same time sell manures, both natural and artificial.

LA ROCHE SUR YON (LA VENDÉE).

In the larger portion of La Vendée the products of the dairy and the farmyard are distributed, either directly or through the instrumentality of small dealers, amongst the regional markets. For these reasons the actual production is far from being what it might be in a country where the climate lends itself so much to the production of butter and cheese. It is only in the districts of the Marais de Luçon and the Marais de Challans that the commerce in butter, eggs, and fowls is sufficiently large for the organisation of important markets. A small number of large dealers, who forward these products to Paris, have the entire control of this commerce, and have become perfect tyrants, fixing prices at their will. They, however, pay ready money, which is an advantage in the eyes of the peasants over the system of syndicates which it has been lately proposed to organise. In short, in the wooded districts of La Vendée production is excessively small because no attempt has been made to find markets beyond the local consumption, whereas in the districts of the marshes and the plain there is an abundant production which is exploited by middlemen.

Recently, however, sufficient new dairies have been established to enable the milk supply to be worked in large enough quantities for the butter to be sent direct to the Halles Centrales at Paris. Among these dairies some have been organised on the

co-operative principle, so that the produce of several small farms can be prepared and sold without the intervention of middlemen.

RENNES (ILE ET VILAINE).

In the Department of the Ile et Vilaine a certain number of villages have a market every week, to which the small farmers of the district, within a circuit of 3 or 4 leagues, bring their products. There are about 80 villages in the department which have a weekly market, and every day of the week 12 or 14 villages hold a market. Many places have more than one market a week, as, for instance, Rennes holds one on Tuesday and Saturday, the former being especially for butter and the latter for grain, provender, fowls, vegetables and wood. Butter is the principal product of the department. The farms are for the most part small, rarely more than 30 acres in size, except in the districts of Vitré, St. Malo, and the west. In each farm the farmer's wife makes the butter every second or third day and takes it to the nearest market. The markets are sometimes held in the morning and sometimes in the afternoon, more often at the former time. The products are bought by merchants who very often live in the district and whose business it is to attend the local markets to purchase butter, eggs, fowls, and cattle. The farmers buy their butcher's meat, stuffs and groceries at the markets. The butter merchants do not buy other products as well, but each product has a special dealer who trades solely in that variety.

The butter purchased by the merchants at these markets is subsequently sent to England, or by way of Normandy to Paris. Formerly a considerable butter trade was done with Normandy and dealers from that province used to attend all the local markets and buy up the butters; of late years this commerce has considerably fallen off and the price of Brittany butter has depreciated. In the same way the butter trade with England has largely decreased and Australian butter has become a serious rival to Brittany butter in the English markets. A third part of the butter finds its way to Rennes, where it is salted and prepared for exportation to Paris, and to South America, Spain, Italy, &c.

The Rennes merchants get most of their butter from the arrondissements of Redon and Montfort, where they have agents who attend the markets. Very often also each dealer has a certain number of farmers from whom he buys their whole year's production of butter. An agent makes a daily round in a cart through the cantons near Rennes, buys the butter from the various farms, and brings it into the town, where it is weighed and marked on its arrival at the dealer's. Each farmer has his account at the dealer's which is settled weekly or monthly according to the nature of the agreement. The canton of St. Aubin d'Aubigné, of which the butter is celebrated, sends half

to Rennes and half to Normandy. The butter is generally bought by middlemen at the markets which are usually very important for this commodity. The butter dealers are occasionally also innkeepers, and when such is the case the cultivators take their butter to them direct. Sometimes, but more rarely, commissioners call at the farmer's houses. In any case the producers have great opportunities for selling their products, either at the markets where they run a risk of a rise or fall in the price, or to the dealers direct.

Milk sells well in the neighbourhood of the large towns, but only farmers living within a few miles of the town can carry on the trade. Near Rennes, milk fetches from 25 c. to 30 c. ($2\frac{1}{2}d.$ to $3d.$) the litre (quart), and it is delivered twice daily. During the last year several farms near Rennes have adopted the plan of putting milk into automatically closed bottles, and this is also done near Dinard and St. Malo, especially in summer, and a considerable number of farmers have turned their attention to dairy produce.

There are some cheese manufactories in the department near Rennes, Noyal sur Vilaine, Vern, Feins, &c., and a certain number of farmers take their milk to them. A M. Champion has a model cheese manufactory at Feins, and purchases all the milk in the "commune" from October to May, to the great advantage of the farmers. At Javené, near Fougères, a dairy has been organised by M. de Lariboisière, which affords a sure and remunerative outlet for the milk of about 30 farms.

In addition to his butter, the farmer brings his eggs, chickens, and vegetables to the markets at St. Malo, Vitré, Fougères, and Rennes, which are very important centres for the sale of chickens and vegetables at the weekly markets. The purchasers are generally the consumers themselves, except when fairs, which are especially intended for the sale of some particular product, are held. For instance, on the three last Thursdays of the three first months of the year, a market which is especially devoted to the sale of grain, eggs, and chickens, is held at Bazouges-la-Pérouse. At Guichon a cattle market is held the third Friday of each month. All the cultivators near St. Malo bring, even from a distance, their new potatoes to the markets which are held there at the beginning of May. They are sold to commission agents and despatched to England; the same thing takes place in September for the sale of their vegetables and cauliflowers. Nearly all the eggs and chickens sold in the Department of Ile et Vilaine are sent to England; they are sold in the markets which are especially established for that purpose, and which are known to the cultivators.

The sale of cattle takes place more especially at the fairs which are held every month or at periods which vary according to the movable festivals; many of them are very important and, as all over Brittany, they are numerous. One is held at Rennes the first of each month. It is at these fairs that the corn and forage dealers who travel not only Brittany but Normandy buy

(from samples) the products of the small farmers, who cart them to the nearest railway station and thence despatch them to the address of the purchaser.

The cattle trade is, on the one hand, carried out between the cultivators themselves, the small farmer bringing the cow he wishes to sell to the ordinary fair, or buying one there if he wants one. On the other hand, the wholesale butchers attend these fairs and buy collectively for an entire district, all the animals destined to supply the wants of the towns in it. There are about 20 fairs of this sort in the department per month, which are more or less important according to the season of the year.

There are several important pig fairs in the arrondissement of Vitré, at Retiers, La Guerche (horses and cattle), Argenté (horses, cattle, and pigs). Dealers attend these fairs and buy for the Paris market. The commerce in pigs has largely increased of late and export dealers have established themselves in the country.

The fairs and markets have, however, decreased in importance since the institution of railways, and many transactions are executed by letter, or dealers go to the farms themselves, buy the produce, and despatch it direct. This system has also been introduced to a less extent in the districts which are not served by railways. All the transactions between the farmers themselves are carried on at the fairs and markets. All the cultivators possess carts in which they transport their produce to the fairs, markets, or railway stations as wanted. In some parts of the department the collection of the products is made by carriers and commission agents acting on behalf of the purchaser, who conveys them to the railway station.

THE PARIS MILK SUPPLY.

The establishment of railways has enabled milk to be brought to Paris from a distance of 150 kiloms. (about 100 miles). This milk, which is delivered by dealers who purchase it from the producers, constitutes nearly the whole supply consumed by Paris, the remainder of which is furnished by dairymen living near Paris, and by a certain number of dairies which keep their cows in Paris itself.

The system employed by the wholesale dairymen is to have centres at varying distances from the capital, where their agents collect milk twice a day from the neighbouring producers.

The system of associations or syndicates for the mutual protection of agricultural interests in France has made great strides of late years, and associations of agriculturists and others exist at the present day in almost every part of the country, the good effects of which are already beginning to be felt very generally—if any reliance can be placed on the perhaps rather Utopian reports published by the syndicates—by all the agricultural classes, and proportionately by those employed in “la petite culture.”

The general object of these associations is shown in the statutes of the "Syndicat Général des Agriculteurs de France," whose aim is stated to be the study and protection of economical agricultural interests, and especially—

1. To facilitate the creation of syndicates;
2. To establish an office at Paris for the purpose of supplying information, acting as an intermediary agent and centralising demands for machines, manures, seeds, and all original substances useful for agriculture, so that subscribers may be able to procure the articles they require retail, but at wholesale prices;
3. To make sure that the goods supplied are genuine; and
4. To make known the best methods of agriculture and to spread abroad the most reliable professional views and the best economical doctrines.

It is further explained in the statutes that one of the objects of the office to be established at Paris, as shown in Art. 2, will be to assist the sale of agricultural products.

Upon the payment of an annual subscription, to be fixed at 20 fr. for a founder, 6 fr. for a subscriber, and 4 fr. for an ordinary member, anyone belonging to the following three classes can become a member of the Central Syndicate:—

1. Landowners, whether they farm their land themselves or let it on lease.
2. Farmers, husbandmen, agents or managers, nurserymen, vine-growers, market gardeners, and labourers employed in agriculture.
3. Any person in a profession connected with agriculture or assisting in the cultivation of agricultural products.

There are numerous other central syndicates whose special object is to assist the work of the local associations which have been formed for the purpose of protecting various branches of agriculture, but the general principles may be taken to be as stated above, and it will not be necessary, without going in detail into the formation of the countless syndicates, large and small, which now exist in every part of France, to do more than point out any special measure particularly concerning the question of the distribution of the products of "la petite culture."

For instance, the Central Syndicate has established at La Villette a special service for the reception and sale of fat stock destined for the Paris market, which, though it is probably of greater assistance to large farmers and cattle-dealers, still must be of some use to such small holders as have fat stock to dispose of. The Central Syndicate has instituted for this purpose a bi-weekly sale at La Villette. This service has existed for 3 years with very satisfactory results, and a tariff of expenses has been fixed for each animal brought to the sale-yard, in accordance with its species. Thus the expenses attending the sale of cows and bullocks have been fixed at 9 fr. per head, of bulls at 10 fr. per head, of sheep at 90 c. per head, of pigs at 3 fr. 10 c. per head, and of calves at 3 fr. 25 c. per head. An extra tariff has also been fixed for animals which remain 24 hours in the market or

whose sale has had to be postponed to the following sale-day, in which is included the provender supplied to them. Animals are only returned to their owners in the event of its being apparent that their sale would be disadvantageous to them.

In the Department of Aisne a society called the "Société Laitière de Leschelle" was created in 1887, which is conducted on the Danish model, and whose object it is to enable the producers to furnish a first-class commodity direct to the Paris markets, without having recourse to the local wholesale dealers whose intervention naturally reduced the producer's share of the profits. This society already receives the milk of 500 cows and it is expected that this number will be further increased.

The formation of weekly markets and dépôts for the sale of agricultural products is one of the chief objects of all the local syndicates and in the Department of Allier the vine-growers have established a market to which only members of the association can bring their wines, but any purchaser can taste the samples and buy the wine offered for sale direct from the producer. The syndicate assumes no responsibility for the integrity of its members, but the detection of a fraud entails the exclusion of the perpetrator from the society, which further publishes the fact, together with the reasons for the same.

In Calvados, in addition to the establishment of schools for the preparation and training of saddle and carriage horses, grooms, coachmen, &c., the Agricultural Syndicate has procured from the large houses great reductions in their prices in favour of its members upon the production of their card of membership; has organised special arrangements by which would be purchasers of horses and cattle are put in direct communication with breeders, and further undertakes itself to execute sales and purchases. The monthly bulletin issued by the syndicate is of the greatest importance, containing as it does very full information upon all subjects connected with the sale and purchase of all agricultural products and requisites. What mostly concerns "la petite culture," however, is the establishment of a system by which butter is delivered direct from the producer to the consumer by parcels post. Each parcel sent by post bears the name of the producer, and in the event of the article supplied being found either to be not genuine or to be of a quality inferior to that agreed upon, the syndicate engages to inquire into all complaints made by the consumer and thus guarantees the commodity. No commission is taken by the syndicate and the prices charged for the butter are the same as those quoted at the Halles, and much lower than those asked by dealers.

In 1892 the following system was instituted by the Calvados syndicate which has been generally adopted by the syndicates all over France, by which the consumer and producer are put in direct communication. The producer advertises in the monthly bulletin of the syndicate any product which he may have for sale, together with the price he asks, and in order that the consumer may be able to judge for himself of the value of the commodity

offered, the producer undertakes to forward a sample by parcels post.

In the Charente Inférieure the syndicate founded in 1886 now numbers 12,500 members and has introduced several very important measures with a view of aiding and encouraging local agricultural interests. In 1888 a co-operative society was established for the sole benefit of members of the syndicate. This society purchases the produce of the small farmer, and further furnishes him at the lowest possible price with whatever article he may require. Its career has been a most prosperous one, and it already counts 30 branch establishments in the department, and to prove its efficacy it is stated that the price of articles supplied to the small farmer has already fallen 25 per cent. The sale of agricultural products is now occupying the special attention of the society, which is seeking to organise a system by which the best prices obtainable may be secured for its members, but it can be easily understood that the establishment of the branch offices throughout the department must have already largely facilitated the efforts of the small farmer to find a favourable outlet for his products.

In Basse-Bretagne a system has been established similar to that which exists in the Department of Calvados, by which butter is delivered by parcels post direct by the producer to the consumer.

A permanent exhibition has been instituted at Alais, in the Department of Gers, and elsewhere, at which samples of products for sale are exhibited, so that any would-be purchaser can find what he wants and where to procure it without the trouble of going to the producer, who, in his turn, is saved the expense and labour of hawking his wares; and in the Pyrénées Orientales the difficulties experienced in the sale of wine has caused a proposal to be made that wine markets should be established so as to enable the producer to find a readier sale for his product.

The above points would appear to be those which especially concern the sale of products of "la petite culture," but in the various syndicates numerous other provisions, such as the insurance of cattle against disease, the destruction of noxious insects, and the protection of vines from frost are taken in the interests of agriculture. Some of the syndicates take a commission on the sales effected by them.

In the hilly parts of Savoy and Franche Comté the small holders sell their milk to "fruitières," or cheese-makers, whose existence dates from the 16th century. A "fruitière" is an association of milk producers, generally the inhabitants of a hamlet or village, and any person may bring his or her milk to the "fruitière," under the distinct stipulation that he brings all the milk he has and does not deduct any for some other purpose, except for his own personal use. It thus becomes an association which manipulates the milk in common, the revenue derived from the sale being distributed in proportion to the amount of milk furnished by each associate. There are 1,700 of these

"fruitières" in Franche Comté. The smaller ones manipulate the milk supplied to them by from 40 cows to 50 cows, and the work is only carried on during a few months of the year, whereas in the larger ones which receive the milk of from 150 cows to 200 cows, proceedings are carried on all the year round. The year commences on November 1 and terminates on November 30 of the following year, at which date the accounts are made up and the profits divided. The cheeses made are sold off twice a year and no associate has the right to sell even a cheese made from the milk supplied by him, though he can take one for his own use.

Such associations also exist in the Charente and in some other parts of France.

This system of associations or syndicates has not been long enough in existence for it to be possible to predict with any certainty whether or no it will ultimately prove beneficial to the small cultivator, but from the large increase which has taken place in their numbers it would appear to be giving satisfaction and it would seem to promise assistance to all classes of agriculturists in the disposal of their products, though at the same time there is a party which foresees nothing but ruin to those concerned in them and in the future a worse state of things than now exists.

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FRANCE.

TAHITI.

Consul Hawes to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord.

Tahiti, September 6, 1893.

I HAVE the honour to enclose a Report on the Cultivation of Sugar in these Islands, which has been prepared by Mr. Vice Consul Brander.

I have, &c.

(Signed) A. G. S. HAWES.

Report on the Cultivation of Sugar in the Society Islands.

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The advantage offered four years ago to planters by taxing all imported sugar 5 c. per kilo. should have caused such an increase in the cultivation of the cane that the island of Tahiti would now have been able to supply its own wants, whereas we find only a comparatively slight increase in production, and foreign sugar still largely imported. The planter is now fully able to compete with foreign importation if he tried, but the absence of capital with the foreigner in the colony and the want of energy with the native prevent this being done.

Good
opening in
the Society
Islands.

That in this industry there is a good opening in the Society Islands for planters must be fully admitted, Tahiti alone is capable of producing 50,000 tons of sugar for export. The land which practically in all parts of the plains is adapted for cane-growing can be obtained at very low figures, on an average for about 3*l*. per acre. In addition to the former extensive plantation of Atimaono—some 3,000 acres of level land—fully 200,000 acres of good well watered fertile land could be secured for sugar growing and worked at a profitable figure.

Labour
question

But it may be argued that the labour question presents too great a difficulty for any extensive agricultural enterprise being carried on in Tahiti. It is true the question of labour has been the stumbling block, but it should really no longer be so.

Facilities
offered for
importation
of labour.

Facilities are now offered by the French authorities for the importation of coolie labour from Cochin-China and elsewhere. These coolies would come under the immigration laws, and protection would be given to employers.

Cost of
labour.

The cost of labour thus imported would be about 7*l*. per head for 400 coolies, an amount which could by agreement be recovered from their pay. Contracts can be made for 5 years or more at the rate of 12*s*. per month pay, free rations of rice and salt fish being also found.

Freights.

Again the supposition of high freights to a foreign market may be raised by some as an objection. At present freights from Tahiti to San Francisco by the monthly mail vessels are not greater than those from the Sandwich Islands to San Francisco, and when the development of the sugar industry here brings large quantities of sugar for export into the market, and freights may then probably be increased, the grower could very profitably charter vessels and become his own exporter. Thus we see that all that is required to bring Tahiti into notice as a valuable and profitable sugar-producing country is the capital to make a beginning.

Capital
necessary.

To glance back at sugar culture as it is at present in Tahiti, and what has already been done, it may be interesting to note that the early discoverers of Tahiti found a very small cane of inferior quality growing wild on the mountain slopes, but under the process of transplanting and cultivation on level ground it became greatly improved in size and quality.

The plant.

The plant now known as the Tahiti yellow cane was imported into Cuba and other West Indian islands; thence it found its way to the southern States of North America, and has obtained the reputation of producing the best sugar known.

Besides this cane several other imported varieties grow on the island, such as, for example, the Chinese red cane, very tough, but containing as much saccharine matter as the yellow. This variety is not, however, cultivated to any extent, as the mills now in use do not possess machinery sufficiently powerful to crush the cane.

Plantations
existed
formerly.

Many sugar plantations are said to have existed in Tahiti as early as 60 years ago, and we hear of the chief of one of the

districts having at that time a mill worked by hand. The juice of the cane, which could only by this means be partly extracted, was boiled down in large iron pots. This manner of making sugar was carried on for several years in Tahiti and the neighbouring island of Moorea, and sufficient sugar was obtained not only to supply the wants of these islands, but shipments were even made to Australia and New Zealand.

About the year 1860 a small steam mill was started capable of turning out 1 ton 10 cwts. to 2 tons of sugar per day. A second mill worked by hydraulic power was very shortly erected, giving the same quantity as the first; and a third of greater capacity was then added, possessing certain recent improvements. These mills worked very successfully for some time, but ultimately, through want of labour, were closed. Introduction of steam mills.

The owners seeing the impossibility of making sugar so as to be remunerative, afterwards turned their attention to distilling, and within two years six distilleries were erected in the island. The result, as may have been expected, was a larger supply of rum than there was a demand for; the market became overstocked, and two or three distilleries were obliged to close. The distillers may now look forward to better prices, on account of one of the sugar mills having re-opened, and the proprietor having bought up several of the cane patches that supplied the distilleries. Less rum will be thrown on the market, and consequently a rise in price will follow. Distilleries.

The land in Tahiti most suitable for sugar culture is a dry surface, as owing to the numerous streams on the island the under-soil is sufficiently moist. If the soil be too damp, the cane, although to all appearances very big and fine, will contain but little saccharine matter, and will only be good for rum. Land.

Artificial irrigation, which is so necessary in most sugar-growing countries, is entirely unnecessary here. Irrigation.

It is a difficult matter to state the exact quantity of sugar that may be obtained from a hectare of land, the so-called cultivation and the mills being of a very primitive nature. As much as 4 tons have been turned out, but the average cannot be put down at more than 2 tons 10 cwts., which leaves a certain quantity for rum. It may be safely said, however, that with proper cultivation, as carried on in sugar-growing countries, and with new machinery extracting 90 per cent. of saccharine matter, the production would considerably increase, and 6 tons may easily be obtained. In fact, there is no doubt that the average production of an acre of cane in Tahiti would equal that of any other country. Difficult matter to state exact production per acre.

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FRANCE.

TAHITI.

Consul Hawes to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Tahiti, December 30, 1893.

WITH reference to my Despatch to your Lordship, of September 6 last, I have the honour to forward the Report on the Cultivation of Vanilla which has been prepared by Mr. Vice-Consul Brander.

I have, &c.

(Signed) A. G. S. HAWES.

Report on the Cultivation of Vanilla in Tahiti.

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The cultivation of vanilla has been carried on in the Island of Tahiti for several years, but is limited to a few districts only, that of Papara supplying more than half of the quantity sent into the market.

Mode of
culture.

The native mode of culture is, as a rule, simply to plant the cuttings of the vine under the shade of trees, and then to leave them to grow and twine round supports as best they can. Occasionally attention is paid to keep the vines trained round the trees and to prevent them from attaining a greater height than 9 feet, so that during the inoculating season the flowers may be reached without difficulty.

Shade, though not dense, is absolutely necessary during the growth of the vanilla vine to ensure a successful crop of beans. About one year from the time of planting the vine commences to flower, and the inoculation, which then takes place, must be carefully attended to; this is generally carried out by women and children whose light hands are best suited for the delicate operation. In from six to nine months from the time of inoculation the bean will be ripe for picking and curing.

The native method of curing is to keep the beans alternately indoors rolled in cloths, and outdoors during the day spread on mats exposed to the sun, for periods of three or four days at a time, until they are dried and ready for the market. The disadvantage, by drying on mats in the open, of having beans frequently wetted and deteriorated in value by sudden showers before there is time to get them under cover, has made itself apparent to many native planters who now dry their vanilla in boxes with glass covers similar to those used at the Temarua plantation, in the district of Papara, which is under foreign management.

In this plantation great attention is paid to trimming the plants, and keeping the ground clear from weeds; the vines are trained on well selected supports; and the process of inoculation is invariably carefully attended to. It may here be remarked that low prices in the market one season may render the native planter so indifferent to his interests that his plantations may be left entirely neglected the following year, the flowers even not being inoculated.

These failings naturally tell to the advantage of the Temarua plantation, though from steady and good management its crops invariably command the highest prices in the market.

Curing.

The boxes used for curing the beans are made of hard wood with glass covers, and measure 6' x 4' x 2' in depth. They are usually filled three-quarters full, the beans being placed on a blanket in the bottom of each box and covered with a double thickness of blanket at the top. The glass lids are then put on, and the boxes exposed to the sun for about 15 days, when the beans are generally found to be sufficiently sweated to admit of their removal to the drying house.

This building is constructed throughout of corrugated iron, and contains three tiers of wire shelves. The beans are laid on

the top tier first, then they are moved to the second and third in succession as they gradually dry, and remain on the latter until they are perfectly dry and fit for the market.

The Temarua plantation consists of 23 hectares, about 51 acres, Area and cost of cultivation. 3 hectares of which have been newly planted, and will soon be bearing. The planting of these 3 hectares has cost the proprietor 105 dol., or 35 dol. per hectare, and when the crops are ready for picking they may be valued at 2,500 dol.

The annual expenses of a plantation of this description, with Expenses. an experienced foreman receiving 1,000 dol. per annum, amount to about 2,000 dol.

The crop varies from 100 kilos. to 200 kilos., and in some Crop. cases to 300 kilos. per hectare per annum; an average, therefore, of 150 kilos. would give the proprietor 3,450 kilos. per annum, and the average price being 2 dol. per kilo., he may calculate on a clear profit of 4,900 dol. The average this year has, however, fallen very much short of preceding seasons, owing to the continued rain.

The Tahiti vanilla is inferior to that of Mexico, Bourbon, Quality. and Mauritius, and this drawback is not improved by the careless manner in which the native, and even the European, dries and ties his bundles of beans for export.

The export for the past 10 years has gradually increased, as Exports. it will be observed from subjoined table, the United States being the principal market; small quantities are, however, from time to time sent to France and England.

TABLE showing the Exports of Vanilla during the Years 1883-92.

Year.					Quantity.	Value.
					Lbs.	£
1883..	..	..	..	..	2,726	818
1884..	..	..	..	..	5,454	1,636
1885..	..	..	..	..	4,919	1,475
1886..	..	..	..	..	8,408	2,522
1887..	..	..	..	..	7,610	3,044
1888..	..	..	..	..	12,569	5,028
1889..	..	..	..	..	8,789	1,758
1890..	..	..	..	..	15,882	3,248
1891..	..	..	..	..	24,585	7,456
1892..	..	..	..	..	25,560	4,418

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1892.

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No. 268.

REPORTS ON SUBJECTS OF GENERAL AND
COMMERCIAL INTEREST.

GERMANY.

REPORT ON

PRUSSIAN INCOME TAX RETURNS FOR THE
FINANCIAL YEAR 1892-93.

*Issued during the Recess and Presented to both Houses of Parliament
by Command of Her Majesty.*

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[C. 6856-16.]

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No. 268.

GERMANY.

BERLIN.

Mr. Le Poer Trench to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Berlin, November 30, 1892.

I HAVE the honour to transmit to your Lordship herewith a carefully drawn up and very interesting Memorandum by Mr. Conway Thornton upon the subject of the Prussian Income Tax Returns for the current Financial Year.

I have, &c.

(Signed) P. LE POER TRENCH.

*Report on the Prussian Income Tax Returns for the Financial
Year 1892-93.*

ABSTRACT of Contents.

	PAGE
Review of general result for financial year	1
Tax on joint-stock companies, &c.	2
On personal incomes	2
Return of smaller incomes, their sources, &c.	2
Larger incomes	2
Results of system of self-assessment	2
Alleviations granted to smaller incomes	2
Moderate incomes more heavily taxed	3
Return of incomes exceeding 5,000L.	3
Increase in their number	3

The results obtained in this the first financial year after the introduction of the reformed income tax in Prussia have now been published. They show an increase over the preceding year of 440,228 as regards the number of taxpayers, and of 45,284,021 marks (2,264,201L.) as regards the amount collected.

Tax on
trading
associations.

A full share of this increased amount is borne by the joint stock companies, registered trading associations, &c., now taxed for the first time, which, to the number of 2,028, have paid together 10,056,743 marks (502,837*l.*). The united capital of these companies is given as 4,231,000,000 marks (211,550,000*l.*), and their united income liable to income tax as 333,000,000 marks (16,650,000*l.*).

On personal
incomes.

For personal incomes a total return is given of 5,724,000,000 marks (286,200,000*l.*), as compared with 4,274,000,000 marks (213,700,000*l.*) the year before. Of this amount 3,873,000,000 marks (193,650,000*l.*) fall to the towns, and 1,851,000,000 marks (92,550,000*l.*) to the country districts. The average income for taxpayers in the towns was 2,746 marks (138*l.*), and in the country 1,804 marks (90*l.*). In Berlin the average income was 2,932 marks (147*l.*). The most prosperous returns are obtained from the towns of Frankfort-on-the-Main, Wiesbaden, Bonn, and Düsseldorf.

Sources of
income.

316,889 persons (last year 254,270 persons) are credited with an income of over 3,000 marks (150*l.*) a-piece. These incomes are derived from the following sources:—

Number.	Sources.	1892-93.		1891-92.	
		Currency.	Sterling.	Currency.	Sterling.
		Marks.	£	Marks.	£
1	Personal property ...	911,721,201	45,586,060	584,448,953	29,222,447
2	Real property ...	766,361,284	37,768,064	707,219,251	35,360,463
3	Trade, industry, and mining ...	982,804,091	49,140,205	650,723,967	32,536,198
4	Professional income ...	593,941,967	29,697,098	351,152,483	17,557,624

Large
incomes.

35 persons are returned as being in the enjoyment of incomes of over 45,000*l.*, against 13 only for the previous year; 4 are credited with over 3,000,000 marks (150,000*l.*), of whom 2 have more than 5,000,000 marks (250,000*l.*). A single taxpayer is returned as possessing an income of 7,000,000 marks (350,000*l.*).

Results of
system of self-
assessment.

Under the former system of returns of income tax it was supposed that, whilst those for the towns were ascertained with tolerably complete accuracy, those for the country were comparatively lax and untrustworthy. It was apprehended, therefore, that the latter would be very largely amplified under the newly-introduced rule of self-assessment. As it turned out, however, the town returns actually show an increase of about 1,000,000,000 marks (50,000,000*l.*), whilst in the country districts an increase is recorded of only half that amount.

A special table is devoted to a statement of the extent to which the new law has acted in relieving the less fortunate classes of the community.

Mitigation in
case of smaller
incomes.

Mitigation of the rate of taxation being allowed to individuals whose income is inferior to 4,200 marks, it is shown that—

Year.	Number of Taxpayers.	Amount Paid.	
		Currency.	Sterling.
		Marks.	£
In 1891-92.. ..	1,859,679	43,845,112	2,442,255
1892-93.. ..	2,245,767	41,961,223	2,098,061

i.e., whilst the number of persons taxed increased by, in round numbers, 400,000, the amount paid decreased by about 7,000,000 marks (350,000*l.*), a very sensible alleviation.

Taking the group immediately above the last-named, viz., fortunes of from 4,200 marks (210*l.*) per annum to 28,800 marks (1,440*l.*) per annum, it appears that—

Greater
burthen
thrown on
moderate
incomes.

Year.	Number of Taxpayers.	Amount Paid.	
		Currency.	Sterling.
		Marks.	£
In 1891-92.. ..	131,597	28,989,612	1,449,480
1892-93.. ..	178,073	41,096,052	2,054,802

In this class, therefore, which may be held to comprise a majority of brain-workers, an increase in numbers is demonstrated of about 40,000, whilst the sum paid in taxation exceeds that of the previous year by over 12,000,000 marks, or, say, 600,000*l.*

It may be remembered that the House of Deputies insisted, during the discussion on the Bill, upon a higher rate being imposed on incomes exceeding 100,000 marks (5,000*l.*)—4 per cent., in the place of 3 per cent. as proposed in the draft. In the group immediately below this limit—from 28,800 marks (1,440*l.*) to 96,000 marks (4,800*l.*)—the following results appear:—

Year.	Number of Taxpayers.	Amount Paid.	
		Currency.	Sterling.
		Marks.	£
In 1891-92.. ..	5,442	7,048,836	352,442
1892-93.. ..	10,238	16,325,680	816,281

In this case, therefore, the number of taxpayers and the sum collected are alike doubled. In the higher class, however, viz., incomes ranging from 96,000 marks (4,800*l.*) to 7,000,000 marks (350,000*l.*), the result is as follows:—

Increase in
number of
incomes in
highest class.

GERMANY.

Year.	Number of Taxpayers.	Amount Paid.	
		Currency.	Sterling.
		Marks.	£
In 1891-92 . . .	915	5,604,120	280,206
1892-93.. . . .	1,780	15,403,200	770,160

so that in this latter instance the doubling of the number of tax-payers is accompanied by a tripling of the amount paid.

It may be observed in conclusion that the large increase in the return of persons enjoying fortunes included in this, the highest class, must be referred to the circumstance, among others, that the privilege formerly enjoyed by the mediatised Princes of Germany was abolished during the past year, and their fortunes rendered amenable to taxation.

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GERMANY.

REPORT ON THE
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HAMBURG.

*Issued during the Recess and Presented to both Houses of Parliament
by Command of Her Majesty.*

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GERMANY.

HAMBURG.

Consul-General Dundas to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Hamburg, December 31, 1892.

WITH reference to your Lordship's Despatch of September 3 last, calling for a Report on the Docks of Hamburg, I have the honour to inclose herewith to your Lordship a Report which I have prepared on the subject. The information I have furnished has been obtained through the courtesy of the Bürgermeister, Dr. Versmann, and is derived from official sources.

I may mention, that in considering the question of strikes and the relative position of the Docks Administration and their workmen, this evil has been in a great measure discounted by the Statutes to which I have referred in the Report, which enable the hands and the authorities mutually to discuss any question arising between them.

Apart from this fact, the position of the men and their pay has been placed on such a favourable basis that it is thought that the motives for having recourse to strike have been, if not removed, at least minimised. But should such a contingency arise the prospect does not appear to cause any anxiety, as the measures for dealing with intimidation are very effectual.

I have, &c.

(Signed) CHAS. S. DUNDAS.

Report on the Docks and Quays of Hamburg.

ABSTRACT of Contents.

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Extent of quays	4
Shipping accommodation and statistics	4-5

Hamburg docks and quays.	The docks and quays of the port of Hamburg are the property of the State of Hamburg. They are not, however, docks in our sense of the word—that is, they are not separated from the open fairway by sluices and dock-gates, but they are open tidal-basins, bounded on three sides by quay-walls.
How administered.	The administration of this property, with the exception of one portion, comprising three sheds and quays, which is leased out to the Hamburg-American Steam Navigation Company, and is, therefore, under the management of that company, is carried on for the account of the Hamburg Government, a sub-department styled the Quay Department, which is controlled by the Board of Trade and Navigation (Deputation für Handel und Schiff-fahrt) as the superior authority.
The powers of the administration.	The work of the Quay Department consists of regulating and providing for the landing and due sorting of goods, and delivery of the same to the respective consignees. The delivery of the goods is effected both by water and by land: by the former by means of lighters, river-craft, or vessels; by the latter through cars or vans, or by rail. A permanent staff of 1,500 workmen, crane-drivers, &c., is employed in this work; besides this permanent staff some 300 assistant hands are daily engaged. These latter are employed only for such time as there may be work for them, whether it be a whole, three-quarters, or even half-a-day. The Quay Department has also to deal with the tariff, according to which payment for the manipulation of the goods is regulated, and controls the wages of the employés, and the duration of working hours. The former varies from 3s. 6d. per day for the permanent hands to at the rate of from 3s. to 3s. 3d. for the assistant hands, and the working time is now fixed according to certain statutes which were introduced last year in consequence of complaints. The duties and conduct of the workmen are also governed by elaborate regulations, stringent in several particulars, to which the workman binds himself on entering the employment of the Quay Department, and provisions exist for securing a fair hearing to the workmen of any complaints or wishes in respect of alterations in the existing regulations, and matters generally affecting their interests.
The relations of the workmen and the administration.	
Dues paid by ships.	The rates payable by vessels using the quays are, according to a tariff issued on February 30, 1887, as follows:— I. For loading and discharging goods with four lay-days. (a) Ships being regular traders, 36 pfennig ($4\frac{1}{2}d.$) per cubic metre. (b) Ships not being regular traders an additional fee of 12 pfennig ($1\frac{1}{2}d.$) per cubic metre. II. For any day over and above the four lay-days per cubic metre 12 pfennig additional. III. For goods for export taken on board out of lighters, 7 pfennig per cwt. Certain deductions are allowed in the case of certain goods, such as coals, coke, asphalte, cement, raw iron, &c., when discharged direct from on board into lighters, such deduction

amounting to $\frac{1}{4}d.$ per cwt., the maximum, however, not to exceed $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ per cubic metre of the ship's carrying capacity.

As stated above, the quays and docks are the property of the Hamburg State, which provided the ground space, and raised the means for constructing the existing works, which make up the present harbour of Hamburg, which, however, is at the present time being still further enlarged to a considerable extent. The rate of interest accruing on the income gained in excess of the capital invested in the construction of the quays, sheds, and railways, which does not, however, include the ground value nor the cost of excavating the basins or docks, amounted for a time to 4 per cent.; but now, owing to increased rates of wages and price of coals, it has gradually declined until it has sunk as low as 1 per cent.

The labourers for loading and discharging are found and paid by the Quay Department, which also undertakes the loading up of the railway trucks; but during the operation of discharging cargo the crew of the vessel are required to attach the goods on board to the crane-chains. Failing the crew the vessel has to find the hands to perform this work. A special gang of skilled workmen is employed for each shed. The number of labourers stated above (page 2) does not, however, include all the workmen employed in the harbour, and there are besides stevedores' men, coal-jumpers, &c. These are not in the employ of the Quay Department.

Payment of wages is effected in three different ways—(1) By daily wage according to rate fixed by the tariffs varying from about $\frac{1}{2}d.$ to a $1d.$ according to the weight or bulk of the goods manipulated. (2) All kinds of work according to weight of goods or number of packages handled. The scale under this head varies from a fraction of a farthing to over a $1d.$ per 200 lbs., and from something less than a $\frac{1}{2}d.$ to over $8d.$ per package or a given number of packages. Overtime is provided for in work under this tariff. (3) Crane drivers who are not regarded as belonging to the gang of labourers working under fixed tariffs who receive pay at the rate of $4s. 2d.$ a day.

The foregoing does not apply to that portion of the harbour which has been mentioned as having been leased to the Hamburg American Company. The work and the labourers here are under the management and in the pay of the company.

The labourers employed permanently are at present working generally for a lump sum, only the assistant or casual labourers who are employed as occasion requires are paid daily wages amounting to $3s. 3d.$, and, in exceptional cases, $3s.$ per day. The wages earned according to the lump sum system have for the current year amounted to from $4s. 3d.$ to $4s. 9d.$ per man per day.

The usual working time on week-days is from 6 A.M. to 6 P.M., allowing half-an-hour for breakfast and $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours for dinner.

During these pauses no work whatever is done. Where work is carried on beyond the usual working hours then an interval of

Profit
returned by
the docks.

Employment
of workmen.

Wages,
how paid.

Wages and
working
time.

from 6 P.M. to 7 P.M. is allowed for supper, and from midnight to 1 A.M. And during these hours all work, as a rule, must be stopped. But in exceptional cases the continuance of work with the consent of the quay official will be permitted during the supper and midnight pause, provided the whole work will be performed until the termination of the pause. The work performed in this time will be paid at double rate.

In discharging vessels it is customary that the work ceases at 12 P.M., and it is only in very urgent cases that exception can be made to this rule, and then the special consent of the managing department must be obtained. This, however, is not the rule in the case of vessels loading, when night work is unlimited.

On Sundays and holidays work is performed under special conditions.

Regulations
and privileges
for the
workmen.

The regulations governing the employment of the permanent hands are very elaborate, a copy being delivered to each individual entering the dock service, who signs the same, and a declaration signifying his acceptance of the conditions therein laid down. The statutes which enable the labourers to submit any grievances to the authorities sanction the formation of a workmen's committee in order to provide the employes on the quays with an opportunity, by means of duly self-elected representatives, of discussing questions and matters relating to their interests.

The number of delegates so elected is fixed at 11, distributed among the workmen, the cranes-workmen, and the work-room hands, and provision is made for the election out of these of a president, and for the attendance at discussions and meetings of the quay director or his nominee. The workmen are provided annually by the quay authorities with a service cap and badge, to be worn during employment, the former to become the property of the workmen when employment ceases if the year be completed. If not a certain compensation to be paid by the workmen to the administration for each remaining month of the year. The badge is to be returned or a forfeit from wages paid.

Extent of
quays, &c.

The total length of the quays is 8,831 yards with 6,347 yards of sheds, and the total area 168,082 square yards. There are 215 steam cranes and 120 hand cranes. The total length of railways on the docks and quays is about 67 miles (108 kiloms.).

That portion of the harbour leased to the Hamburg-American Company comprises 820 yards of quays and 705 yards of sheds: containing 18,737 square yards of shed area, with 20 steam cranes and 12 hand-worked cranes.

Shipping
accommoda-
tion.

The number of vessels which the quays can accommodate depends, of course, on the size, but it may be estimated at from 80 vessels to 100 vessels on the average, although these figures have been at times largely exceeded. The total number of sea-going vessels which the harbour of Hamburg can accommodate has exceeded 300 vessels together with nearly 800 vessels of river-craft of all descriptions. These figures do not, however, include nearly 4,000 barges employed only in local traffic. The

number of sea-going vessels which entered the port of Hamburg in 1891 was 8,673 vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 5,762,369 register tons. And the number which cleared was 8,684 vessels, with 5,766,318 register tons.

To these figures must be added 13,756 river-craft, with 2,827,351 tons, which entered and 13,493 river-craft, with 2,758,284 tons, which cleared in 1891.

As helping, perhaps, to give some idea of the immense amount of labour employed in the course of the year, and the business the management has to deal with, I may add that in 1891, the last year for which statistics are available, the volume of goods imported seawards, which of course does not include that coming from the interior by way of the Upper Elbe, and the railways, was 106,790,069 cwts., valued at 74,578,361*l.*; and the exports seawards, also excluding goods exported by the railways and Upper Elbe to the interior, amounted to 52,813,690 cwts., of the value of 63,501,217*l.*

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GERMANY.

REPORT ON

LABOUR TIME AND LABOUR WAGES IN GERMANY.

*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty,
APRIL, 1893.*

LONDON:
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No. 283.

GERMANY.

FRANKFORT.

Consul-General Sir Charles Oppenheimer to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord, *Frankfort, March 16, 1893.*

I HAVE the honour to hand your Lordship a Report on Labour Time and Labour Wages in Germany which I trust will be found of interest.

I have, &c.

(Signed) CHARLES OPPENHEIMER.

Report on the Labour Time and Labour Wages in Germany.

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NOTE.—1 mark = 1s.; 1 mark = 100 pf.

*Labour Time in Germany***Review.**

In Germany there does not exist any comprehensive, uniform, regularly renewed statistics concerning the labour time. However, many scattered researches have taken place during the last few years with reference to this subject, the compilation of which may give an approximately correct view of the state of affairs.

As a general result of all these researches it has been found, that with reference to the labour time a chaos may be said to exist in the German industry. There are works which have introduced day and night labour and some with Sunday labour. These, however, are the exception. But even those factories, which only work on week days and which form the majority of the industrial works, show the greatest possible differences: viz., various times of labour with different industries at the same place, and various times of labour in the same industry at different places, as well as various times of labour at different seasons according to the season, run of business, &c. Not only is the regular daily time of labour different, but also the intervals for rest and the times of same are different, in number as well as length, the time for commencing and finishing work is different, and further differences finally also are created by overwork. This chaos is very well described by the factory inspector for Upper Bavaria, who in one of his yearly reports remarks: "Even in similar and practically the same industries in this respect great differences often exist, and, moreover, in many factories the time of labour is not every year nor even day by day the same, but for different reasons, and more or less urgent grounds, it is subject to manifold changes or regular periodical fluctuations."

Chaos.

Such a chaotic state of affairs cannot please the Germans, who are noted for their love of order. Their social political thinkers have, therefore, been pleading for some years for the introduction of a legal maximum day of labour. But these endeavours have been thwarted by the stubborn resistance of the larger industries, which are disposed to see in every legal restraint concerning the labour day a curtailment in their capacity for competition, although experience in England has proved the contrary.

Labour time.

With regard to the labour time in Germany, the reports of the factory inspectors are a valuable source for statistics.

In the year 1885 all the Federal Governments asked their factory inspectors to direct their special attention to the daily working hours usual at the time. The reports which were consequently furnished by the factory inspectors give a review, and in fact the only general one, of the time of labour in the whole Empire and in all branches of industry. From the reports it is seen, that in the greater number of works not employing night labour (after deducting intervals for rest, &c.), the rule is an actual working time of 11 hours to the utmost 12 hours; however a working time of 10 hours only and even less is often the rule, although on the other hand also a much longer day's work is

often demanded. The shortest time of labour exists on the average in the polygraphic industries. A very long duration of work, partially combined with much bodily exercise, is almost universally the custom in certain factories of the following branches: stone and earthenware industries, and those connected with articles of food. Under this heading foremost must be named brickworks, turf cutting, glass works, water and wind-mills, also sugar factories, breweries, distilleries, dairies, cheese factories, furthermore saw-mills of all kinds, in which (mostly on account of special circumstances) great irregularities cannot be avoided. The work also in several branches of the textile industry is of long duration, especially in spinning works: furthermore in iron foundries, where, however, as a rule the workmen enjoy longer pauses from work. Also the mode of employment must be taken into consideration, for instance machinists and boiler overseers are often overtaxed, as they are obliged to remain working longer than the other men, having 12 hours to 13 hours actual labour, where a change is impossible, inasmuch as their occupation is combined with great responsibility. Nevertheless, still longer hours of works, even up to 24 hours, are frequently demanded from them, the factory inspector at Düsseldorf, at all events, reports to this effect.

If one looks aside from the overwork and only considers the actual time of labour, the result is, that the real factory industries on the average have a shorter duration of work than artisans and those engaged in commercial trades. At least, the comparisons made in the superintendent's district of Berlin-Charlottenburg have shown that out of every 100 works, and out of every 100 male or female working hands, there exists a labour time of over 11 hours:—

Description.	Percentage.		
	Factories, &c.	Males.	Females.
In larger factories	4·31	3·51	4·46
works of artisans	18·85	15·52	6·09
commercial trades	64·77	54·94	45·06

The actual labour time, without taking into consideration overtime, fluctuates, as shown, on the average between 10 hours and 12 hours, but shows everywhere great varieties and deviations. Thus it is rather high in the provinces of East Prussia and West Prussia, in Pomerania it amounts on the average to 11 hours, in Posen from 10 hours to 11 hours, in Schleswig-Holstein and Hanover, as well as in the district of Arnberg to 11 hours, in Dresden and Bautzen to 11 hours, in Zwickau and Meissen from 11 hours to 12 hours, in Leipzig from 10 hours to 12 hours, in Plauen to 12 hours, in Mecklenburg from 10 hours to 12 hours, in Bremen to 10 hours, in Hamburg from 10 hours to 11 hours.

Berlin-
Charlotten-
burg.

In the Berlin-Charlottenburg district 3,070 factories work 10 hours and less, 806 factories work 10 hours and more, 3,710 11 hours and less, 166 11 hours and more; shiftwork (day and night work) with 24 and 21 working hours is employed only in 4 factories. An indefinite labour time exists in 346 works, and very long hours, between 12 to 17, existed in several slaughter-houses, mills, bakeries, brick-works, &c., while in other works of the above-named industries a labour time of less than 12 hours; in several even much less was the rule.

Breslau.

In the Breslau district the number of working hours per week in the very large industry there varied from 65 to 77 where the work always commences at 6 A.M.; 74 to 77 hours were only met with in smaller factories. Very long working shifts were partially observed in the flax-spinning works; there work went on sometimes from 5 o'clock A.M. until 8 o'clock P.M. with two hours intermission, in all therefore 13 hours. The report says, "Undoubtedly this method is adopted from the state of affairs prevalent in the neighbouring Bohemia."

Magdeburg.

In the district of Magdeburg the workmen in the metal factories partially were occupied at times for a very long day's work, for instance, in 16 factories over 11 hours, in 15 factories over 12 hours; in the remaining factories there were regularly 10 hours to 11 hours' working time.

Hesse-Nassau.

In the province of Hesse-Nassau upon the whole the daily time of work of 11 hours is customary, principally in the country districts, whereas 10 hours is more the rule in the cities. "Glass factories, the inspector writes, in which 10 years ago a day's work of 14 hours (inclusive of intervals), was customary, have reduced this, on the average, to 10 hours (inclusive of intervals), and it is affirmed by the managers of the works that since the change the workmen perform more work in the same time than they did formerly with the longer labour time."

Minden-
Münster.

In the district of Minden-Münster (with the exception of the miners employed in the strontianite mines, who only work 8 hours daily), the time for labour is at least 10 hours, mostly, however, 11 hours.

Düsseldorf.

In the district of Düsseldorf the time of labour for the one shift works, apart from overwork, is mostly between 10 and 12 hours. This report is especially noteworthy. 'It reads: "In the mechanical workshops, machine factories, and iron and metal foundries connected therewith, in boiler factories, shipyards, building and artistic locksmith works, the labour time of 10 hours and even longer is the rule: it, however, does not exceed an actual worktime of 12 hours except in the case of boiler and machine attendants." 'In the small iron and steel goods industry (where the manufacturer on a small scale has apprentices working even 14 hours to 16 hours in consequence of their small earnings) a shift of 14 hours with 12 hours to 12½ hours' labour generally exists; in special works, however, a 16 hours' shift with 14 hours to 15 hours' labour is found."

Spinning.

In the spinneries of every description a shift of 13½ hours to 14 hours with 12 hours' real labour time is the rule. A few

cotton and yarn spinneries, however, work regularly 1 hour or 2 hours longer, so that the workmen are constantly employed from 6 A.M. to 12 noon, and from 1 P.M. to 8 P.M. or 9 P.M. In other cotton and yarn spinneries, however, 11 hours to $11\frac{1}{2}$ hours; in one yarn spinnery only 10 actual work hours are customary.

A similar variety exists in the weaving works. While in some Weaving. yarn and half wool mills even during the best seasons only 10 real working hours are customary, some other factories in the same trade have in the winter 10 hours, in summer 11 hours, and again others during the whole year 11 hours to 12 hours, and in times when business is good, even 13 hours and 14 hours of labour.

Mills producing cotton and printed goods commonly have Cotton. 11 hours to 12 hours' labour time, which, however, in times of good trade are increased from 1 hour to $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours.

Also in the silk and velvet mills the labour time is 11 hours to 12 hours, and for strap makers the labour time is 12 hours which is extended when trade is brisk.

The same also holds good for the cloth-dressing factories and Cloth. on a still larger scale for the dyeing establishments; these, especially in the silk and velvet mills, which either reduce their week's work to 4 days of 15 hours or extend it to 7 days of 14 hours per week, give a fair picture of the changes in the industry; the same is also applicable to the cotton printing and finishing industries (with, in the winter, 9, and in the brisk season $13\frac{3}{4}$ working hours), and the button and ribbon factories, as well as the various clothing and cleaning industries, which all work, as a rule, 12 hours.

How dependent the one and two shifts' work are on each other Shifts. is, furthermore, seen from the report of the Düsseldorf inspector, which, after having named those industries in which the one shift work is in use throughout, mentions the following exceptions:—

Regular exceptions to this rule, namely, such as employ constantly Exceptions. two shifts, are the iron foundries, which produce commercial articles principally (tubes, &c.), a wire-drawing factory, and the wood-pulp and paper factories; they work in day and night shifts and pay alike, changing every 12 hours.

The following are regular exceptions:—One cotton and two worsted yarn spinners, several strap works, several cotton and silk dyeing establishments, and several printing works, which, besides other printed matter, also print morning journals; they have a day shift of 13 to 14 hours, and a night one of 10 to 11 hours, but pay the $9\frac{1}{2}$ to 10 hours of real labour in the night shift higher than the 12 to $12\frac{1}{2}$ hours in the day shift, because the men are unwilling to change their shift, and in view of this repugnance of the hands to night work a pecuniary stimulus is needed. The latter also is especially the case with female hands, who, however, are only employed in regular night-work in the above-mentioned cotton and worsted yarn mills.

A standing exception to this rule is also furnished by portions of several branches of industry. Thus the enamel-burning applied to cooking implements, the heating of glue in glue factories, the

drying of half-finished goods in the horse-hair spinneries, artificial wool and printed goods factories, sealskin factories, some Turkey red dyeing establishments and wool washing houses, black metallic earthworks, filter and steam-heating shops in the sugar refineries, the heating of the raw or half-finished goods in the bleaching and yarn and Turkey-red dyeing establishments, paper, pulp, and seal-skin factories, the carbonising of high-class wool and raw wool all employ, as a rule, day and night shifts of 12 hours each.

Aachen-Trier. In the district of Aachen-Trier the usual time of labour is 12 hours in the forges; in the metal factories and the machine works it is 10 to 11 hours. 253 factories, with 19,402 workmen, or four-ninths of all the workmen in the 1,251 factories in the district (with 43,305 workmen) belong to the textile industry. About one-third of the men in the spinneries and mills are occupied daily for 11 hours; the remaining two-thirds have, in about equal proportions a labour time of about 10, 12, and even longer hours.

Upper Bavaria. In the district of Upper Bavaria, Lower Bavaria, Suabia, and Neuburg, in the larger half of the factories, with over 30,000 workmen, a daily labour time of more than 11 hours is the rule, and only in about 200 works, with about 5,000 workmen, is a working time of more than 12 hours usual. In about 600 factories, with 18,000 men, the time was less than 11 hours daily.

Upper Palatinate, Regensburg, &c. The following remarks of the inspector for the district of Upper Palatinate, Regensburg, Upper Franken, &c., are interesting:—

“The organization of the labour time in the numerous works in my district where the cutting and the polishing of plate glass is performed, is not practical, because, as a rule, the polishers are working from 4 A.M. until 8 P.M., in all thus 16 hours, and then clear their polishing tables from 8 P.M. to 4 A.M., in order to sleep on them; the polishers are six days in the week uninterruptedly at the factory, and only obtain a good night's rest on Sundays, while during the week two hands take it in turn to sleep for 4 to 6 hours before and after midnight, for which purpose a bench or a dirty mattress is used in some corner of the shop.”

The explanation of this state of things, which is not at all complimentary to the Fürth mirror industry, the inspector maintains, is to be found in the poor wages, which force the labourers to such exertions.

In the exceedingly industrial districts of the Kingdom of Saxony a very high labour time was found on the whole. In the district of Plauen i/V., a labour time of 12 hours was the rule.

Leipzig. In the district of Leipzig the labour time was among 49,087 workmen:—

Number of Workmen.	Percentage.	Number of Hours per Day.
19,680	40·1	10
20,070	40·8	11
4,780	9·7	12

In Baden the daily labour time varies for the greater part of **Baden.** the industries from between 10 hours and 11 hours. Only in a few instances does it go below 11 hours and over 12 hours, and the latter cases are more frequent than the former. In the stone-polishing works the time of labour increases in summer to 12 hours; in the porcelain factories it is 13 hours; in the iron foundries more than 11 hours; and in the textile industry almost universally 12 hours. The inspector considers all these working hours too long and injurious to health, especially those in stone-polishing works, where the work is performed in a recumbent position.

So much for the one-shift works. With regard to those with two shifts with nightwork, I will merely reproduce the remarks of the factory inspector at Düsseldorf, which gives a general view of the situation. In the district above mentioned there are working in two-shift work time—

1. All labourers in furnaces who are employed at the apparatus connected therewith (*e.g.*, boilers, pipe motors, pumps, or bellows).
2. The workmen in glass factories, alcohol and tar distilleries, glycerine refineries, who are employed in attending to the fires and distilling apparatus; the stone cutters, the smelters, the distillers in ammonia, soda factories, the sulphide of zinc and pyrites calciners; the hands in the chambers of sulphuric acid works; the smelters and overseers in condensing chambers of sulphate factories; the hands employed in dissolving and calcining in copper works and zinc-lead factories; the engineers in pump works which are continually in work.
3. The workmen in refining, forging, welding, rolling and hammer works for iron and steel; in cast steel, tempered cast, copper, calcine, and zinc works; in coke, brick, chalk, and clay works; in factories for fire-proof goods, porcelain, glass, and water-glass; in chemical, ice, soap, stearine, starch, ultramarine and white-lead factories; in malting shops, breweries, sugar factories, and in pump-works going constantly; in as far as they are employed in heating and attending to boilers.
4. A 12-hour labour time also exists for labourers employed in works of the three above-named classes, where day and night shifts change every week or fortnight, which are employed in filling and emptying the apparatus and attending to the articles therein, and perform the smelting, forging, rolling, &c., of the heated products taken therefrom. With them, however, the change of shift is easily managed, as work ceases on Sundays for at least 12 hours. The "long" shift does not exist in their case. But there is Sunday work for some every week or fortnight, which differs in manner and time according to the different special wants of the works, and perhaps also according to the opinion or habits of the managers, but in many works of the iron and steel industry this Sunday work frequently is so long that it requires a quarter of all the hands, and this, too, sometimes for the entire 12 hours that the works are not open. For most of this Sunday work no

higher wage is paid as a rule, and in many cases of this kind of work (*e.g.*, drawing in cylinders, &c.) nothing is paid, because it is held that the wages which would be due for it come in in the weekly wages for piece-work.

Glassworks.

In the glassworks where with the three shift work of 8 hours and the two shift work of 11 hours to 12 hours of the glass blowers and their assistants, the daily labour time is increased to 10 hours or even 14 hours by their being obliged to remove and count the bottles, this latter work is not especially paid for. In zinc works, the work is performed in one shift by the smelters and their assistants (on week days 10 to 12 hours, Sunday 6 hours to 8 hours), and the men employed in filling and emptying the furnaces in coke works (Sundays and weekdays 11 hours to 13 hours), in tile and chalk works, as well as in factories for fireproof goods and porcelain (week days 12 hours, Sundays as a rule none). The disintegrating, &c., of the raw material is generally performed in two shifts in works of the last-mentioned kind, and the manufacturing of the raw goods in one shift of 12 hours to 14 hours.

A 12-hour day and night shift as under No. 4, has been introduced for those employed in boiling in yarn bleaching works, for dyers and machinists in paper mills, for the millers in steam mills and in most water mills. The workmen in the mills situated along the Rhine have frequently a longer time of work, because they often help before or after their usual shift in unloading the grain ships; the high wages paid for this induce the workmen to work 16 hours and even 18 hours per diem.

Agricultural branches.

In the agricultural branches of industry the average conditions differ in many respects from those of the larger manufacturing industries. Yet also in this case a transition from the simple old conditions of work to the better conditions in vogue in the factories has taken place. This is especially applicable to the agricultural eastern provinces of the Empire, namely those of East Prussia and West Prussia, Posen, and Pomerania. In general, exceedingly long working hours may be observed here. The report for the district of Potsdam-Frankfort o/Oder reads as follows:—"The effect of the hard labour is striking in the case of the brickmakers. These people mostly work during the 7 summer months solely in the brickworks, and during the 5 winter months either at home or as servants, but at all events under less taxing conditions. In spring they begin work healthy, and in autumn they look tired and exhausted. But the poor mode of life of these people must also be taken into consideration in this respect."

Brickmakers.

The work of the brewers and malsters is also very fatiguing, but these live well.

Brewing.

In the factories for dry starch and molasses the labour time is from 10 hours to 16 hours, and also even 18 hours.

Starch and molasses.

Very long hours exist also in sugar factories, in Mecklenburg as high as 18 hours, in Baden up to 21 hours.

Sugar.

In the mills the work lasts for 16 hours and more, even up to 18 hours and 19 hours at times, when there is plenty of water. The same holds good for windmills.

When questioning with respect to the workmen's need of sleep, the factory inspector for East Prussia and West Prussia received as answer, "He would be a poor miller who needed more than 4 hour's sleep."

The inspector for the province of Posen reports similarly. *Posen.* He adds, that in his opinion the millers get ill not only from the flour dust, but also from the excessive labour time.

From the reports for the year 1889, the following statement is taken:—

In the district of Hesse out of 300 factories, which were visited *Hesse.* by the inspector, 264 works without any night shift. Of these the labour time is for:—

Number of Works.	Number of Hours Worked.
14	Less than 10 hours
90	10 hours
44	Over 10 hours, less than 11 hours
85	11 hours
14	Over 11 hours, less than 12 hours
10	12 hours
7	Over 12 hours

In Alsace-Lorraine the work time in the two shift manufactories, *Alsace-* mills and wood polishing works is, inclusive of intervals, 12 *Lorraine.* hours.

The shifts change in most works at 6 o'clock, in some works also at 12 o'clock, either every week or fortnight and mostly with a change shift of 18 hours.

Out of 44 cotton mills there were—

Number of Mills.	Number of Hours in Shifts.	Number of Hours Worked.
15	13½	12
9	13	12
1	14	12
3	12½	11½
1	11½	11¼
12	13½	12½
2	14	13
1 (at times)	15½	14

The day shifts in the worsted and carded yarn mills are of *Worsted.* about the same duration. The labour time in machine weaveries is altogether analogous.

In 63 of these cases there were—

Number of Factories.	Number of Hours Worked.
2	11 $\frac{1}{4}$
3	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
1	11 $\frac{3}{4}$
31	12
12	12 $\frac{1}{2}$
13	13
1	13 $\frac{1}{2}$

Silk.

In the silk machine mills of the district the labour shift was from 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 13 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours, with 1 to 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours' interval. In one factory the net working time was 11 hours. In the hand-weaving sheds the work time at dull seasons is, as a rule, 10, 11, or 12 hours, with long intervals, but when business is brisk and the limit of time for executing orders is short, it is increased sometimes to 14 hours, or even 16-hour shifts; there are factories, however, which work regularly throughout the year for 12 hours. In printing offices, cloth dressing works, &c., when business is quiet, there are in 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ hour shifts 10 working hours; in brisk business times there are said to occur even in 17-hour shifts 12 to 15 hours' work time. This state of affairs improved in the year 1890, as is shown in the report of the same factory inspector for the year 1890.

**Aachen and
Trier.**

In the district of Aachen and Trier the usual work time in the textile factories for the adult workmen is from 6 A.M. to 8 P.M., with 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours' intermission altogether—thus 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours daily; weekly, in all 73 hours of work. In 13 important cloth factories at Aachen and Burtscheid even more was demanded at times from the workmen.

Textile.

In the report for the year 1889 complaints are repeatedly made of the overwork in the textile works. Thus the Badish factory inspector writes:—

“The overwork in a large textile factory during half the year amounted from 4 to 5 hours on two week-days for certain sections of the workmen, so that they had to work from 6 A.M. until 11 or 12 P.M. On the four other week-days the work time was from 6 A.M. until 8 or 9 P.M., and no intermission is granted after 1 o'clock if work is not continued over 8 o'clock. 773 persons in the above-mentioned factory were employed in this manner. Such flagrant transgressions on the part of employers create in some quarters the worst impression, as in the neighbouring Switzerland a maximum working time of 11 hours has been established.”

**Lower
Bavaria.**

The district of Lower Bavaria furnishes quite a different picture. Although even here the favourable course of business made greater demands on the capacity of the works, the inspector confirms that, in all establishments visited by him, no deviation from the usual 10 to 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ hours' work time took place, in order not to create any dissatisfaction among the hands. On the other hand, it was possible to increase the daily output by improvements in machinery.

The inspector says:—"I have had many opportunities during the past year of observing that the employer can do a great deal to increase the daily work of a well-trained labourer by taking care that his men work into each other's hands, so that they need not lose any time in fetching tools, raw materials, or half-finished goods, and that all articles needed for his work are brought to him, and finished goods carried away for him by extra hands, for which purpose a few more women or boys can easily be employed."

The inspector for the district of Baden, while speaking about **Overwork**, the state of work in English centres of labour, draws attention to the connection between the overwork and the arrangements of the manufactories. He says:—"Apart from the reasons which lie in the state of business, overwork is sometimes also necessitated by the inferior plants in the factories. Thus in mills, for instance, the relation of the auxiliary plant to the spinning looms is only correct for certain numbers. If, therefore, much coarser or finer numbers are to be spun than those for which the plant was erected, there are either too few auxiliary or too few spinning machines if no part of the factory is temporarily or partially to cease working. As they wish to avoid the latter, they resort to the means of letting those machines work over the normal time, of which there are too few, to produce the necessary quantity."

"Now, as was already mentioned in earlier reports, every mill in Germany, except in specially favourable seasons, is forced by the conditions of output to accept orders for the most varied numbers, which fact works, in the manner described, disadvantageously on the labour time. In England the conditions in this respect are different. There every mill only manufactures one number, or very few numbers which are very near and similar to each other, and through the organisation of the market the establishment is in a position to refuse all other orders. With us, when establishing the mills, the conditions of the market were not considered, but English standards were merely adopted. The plants, therefore, in most instances, do not possess the necessary elasticity so as to be able to conform to the different requirements of the production. At this point it may be remarked that this fact not only works unfavourably on the keeping of regular labour hours, but also increases the cost of manufacture to a great extent on account of the changes which must be made in the organisation of the works, which take up a great deal of time."

From the reports of the inspectors for the year 1890 the following statistics are taken. The factory inspector for the Government district of Magdeburg has found that the worktime of 35,986 adult workmen, employed in 1,002 factories, was, after deducting all intervals, in:—

Number of Factories.	Percentage.	Number of Workmen.	Percentage.	Number of Hours Worked.
1	..	14	..	14
3	..	59	..	13
42	4·2	594	1·7	12
278	27·7	5,236	14·5	11
46	4·5	1,679	4·6	10½
586	58·4	25,478	70·8	10
18	1·7	285	0·8	9½
20	2·0	2,456	6·8	9
2	..	22	..	8½
5	..	121	..	8
1	..	42	..	7

Thus over one-half of the factories, especially the larger ones, and nearly three-quarters of the workmen have a work-shift of 10 hours. The 42 workmen with 7 hours' work are glass blowers. In the reports of 1890 a reduction of the worktime is several times mentioned.

Duration of
labour.

In Upper Franken, instead of the hitherto 12 hours' worktime, one of 11 hours was introduced, partially with a simultaneous increase of wages for piece-work. Where the latter did not take place, the inspector writes (as in one of the most important cotton mills in the city of Hof), the former 12 hours' worktime was soon re-established, because the differences in their wages could not be borne by the workmen without causing too great a change on their mode of living.

The inspector for Upper Bavaria, &c., reports that in his district the 10 hours' worktime in the works for skilled labourers may almost be regarded as the normal one.

The inspector for Alsace-Lorraine reports in 1890:—"The labour time and work now, as far as Upper Alsace is concerned, is quite different to what it was in the previous year. The number of works only running 10, 10½, and 11 hours is much larger; the night labour-time is shorter; and the shifts are broken by more and longer intervals. In 1890 the 11 hours' worktime has been universally introduced into the cotton mills of the München-Gladbach Chamber of Commerce district, in mills and cloth factories of the district Zwickau, and in five big textile factories, with about 4,000 labourers, in the Grand Duchy of Baden."

The following data concerning the regular worktime in several factories of the district are contained in the reports for the year 1891:—

Of the factories visited in the district of Upper Bavaria, &c., the time of work amounted to—

Number of Hours Worked.	Percentage.
10	30·1
10 to 11	30·1
11 12	28·8
More than 12	9·6
Uncertain	1·9

Less than 10 hours' labour per day is usual in many works not employing machines and in such with machines, especially the polygraphic trade; the metal and wood industries especially have 10 hours' worktime, the textile industry 11 hours, the works running continually 12 hours. Those having a working time of more than 12 hours are principally the brickyards, sawmills, mills, breweries, and malt factories.

In Middle Franken a reduction took place in the worktime from 10-11 hours to 6-9 hours in the brush, metal, and other factories; in Upper Franken from 12 hours to 11 or 10 hours in mills and finishing works; in the dye-works of Upper Franken a limit of 8 hours per day was fixed on, or the work was only carried on on certain days of the week, according to the quantity of yarn furnished to be dyed.

A labour time of 10 hours and less was met with in 115, or 72 per cent., of 160 works inspected at Nuremberg; at Fürth this was the case with 53 per cent. of all the inspected factories. A labour time of 10 hours and less was only found in 40, or 22 per cent., of the 177 factories visited in the country or in smaller towns of the district of Middle and Upper Franken; in Upper Franken only in 15 per cent. of all the inspected works. Apart from the breweries and malt works, where the daily work time is not less than 14 hours, a work time of 12 hours and more could only be noticed in Nuremberg and Fürth; these were in the engine-rooms of a bathing establishment, a steam saw-mill, and two small works; and besides these cities (but still in Middle Franken) in 39 works, or 10 per cent., of those inspected being principally brickworks, hammerworks, glass-polishing and polishing works; in Upper Franken, on the other hand, the number of works which had a labour time of 12 hours and more was 34 per cent. of the entire number, and would have been still greater had not the work time been reduced frequently in textile factories on account of a slackness in trade.

In the works inspected in the Palatinate, &c., apart from the breweries, maltworks, glassworks, and mills, the labour time, after deducting intervals, is—

Percentage of Works.	Number of Hours Worked.
1.4	9
1.6	9½
26.7	10 to 10½
12.5	10½
42.0	11
9.3	11½
5.0	12
1.0	12½
0.5	13

According to the statistics of the inspector of the district of Dresden, the following daily working hours are usual in 211 factories employing 6,600 workmen—

Branch of Industry.	Number of Daily Working Hours.						
	9	9½	10	10½	11	11½	12
	Number of Factories.						
Stone and earthenware ...	...	3	1	24	...	11	...
Metals ...	1	...	6	2	1	...	...
Machines, tools, and instruments...	...	...	12	3	4	...	...
Chemical ...	...	2	4	...	...	...	...
Heating and lighting ...	...	1	6	2	2	...	...
Textile ...	...	1	4	...	5	...	...
Paper and leather ...	...	...	3	1	7	...	...
Wood and carving...	3	...	...	...	25	2	4
Articles of food ...	1	1	23	2	9	...	5
Clothing and cleaning ...	...	...	3	1	2	...	...
Polygraphic...	...	1	3	...	...	...	...
Other branches ...	...	...	2	...	...	...	...

In one mill in Alsace-Lorraine, which uses steam and water power, the shift of the different workmen was organised in such a way that everyone, even the stoker, had for 2 days a shift of 13 hours, and every third day one of 36 hours. In a saw-mill in the same district two shifts of 16 hours each were organised for the two workmen employed: the one worked from 4 o'clock A.M. to 8 o'clock P.M., the other from 4 o'clock P.M. until 8 o'clock A.M. Other saw-mills furnished the same length of hours and the same distribution of the shift, only their hours differed, whilst, on the other hand, there were also saw-mills with shifts of 12 hours.

Also in the district of the Palatinate, &c., the work time is very unfavourably proportioned to the hours of rest; for instance, 30 hours' work and 14 hours' rest, and in the smaller mills 36 hours' work and 12 hours' rest.

Shifts.

In other mills of this district a regular change of shifts takes place, so that the labour time, after deducting the intervals, is about 11 hours.

In some other mills work is left off for several hours during

the night. The daily worktime then amounts to 12 hours to 15 hours.

Concerning the labour time in Berlin especially there are some interesting data for September, 1891, which will be quoted in the second portion of this report dealing with the statistical researches of the Berlin Board with regard to wages. The worktime for the greater portion of the hands amounts from 9 hours to 10 hours. It is $11\frac{1}{2}$ hours in one Breslau wheat-beer brewery. As high as 12 hours for weavers, for members of the local sick fund for the weavers and similar trades, for the stuff and serge guild, chairmakers (working at home), as well as for several mills, for the wood factories and workmen employed in wood yards, for tailors (according to the information supplied by the guild and the local insurance association), for cutters-out, preparers and stitchers in the shoe trade according to the information received from the local union. With reference to the latter trade the hours given are said to be still higher. The labour time of the shoemakers reaches, according to the local sick fund, 13; according to the trade union itself, 14 hours. The time for the tailors, according to the local union, is even 15 hours. An equally long time is usual, according to the statements of the respective local sick insurance fund, for furriers, cap manufacturers, &c., where, with from 12 hours to 16 hours' daily working time, only 1 hour's rest is granted; the furriers' guild, however, and one shop state that the time is only 10 hours.

The Imperial Commission for collecting labour statistics has organised an inquiry during the second half of the year 1892 into the labour time in bakeries and confectioners' shops, the results of which, the first work accomplished by this committee, confirm the experience of too long working time in ordinary trade occupations.

The impulse to this inquiry, which was carried out by means of papers to be filled in, was given by a pamphlet published about a year previously by the leader of the Social Democrats, August Bebel.

The official statistics, it is true, obtained a more favourable view of the state of things. However, the report handed in by the Imperial Commission still shows a very alarming condition of things in this extensive trade. The data of the Committee embrace 5,347 shops, *i.e.*, 10 per cent. of the total number of such shops in Germany, in 368 places. They were divided into four classes, according to size. Of the replies, 2,758 originate from employers; 1,589 from workmen. In the 5,347 works 14,102 persons were employed; of these 13,060 in manufacturing the bread and confectionery (4,189 of whom were apprentices), and 1,042 in selling the goods (992 of these being females).

The labour time, inclusive of intervals and of work connected with the business, amounted to—

Number of Hours Worked.	According to the Replies of—	
	Employers.	Workmen.
	Percentage.	Percentage.
12 and less	59·4	47·0
Over 12 to 14	28·4	28·9
14 to 16	8·8	17·7
16 to 18	2·0	4·3
18	0·4	1·0
Uncertain	1·0	1·1

It is seen that the replies from the employees are somewhat less favourable than those of the employers. But so much is nevertheless clear, that the 12-hour worktime preponderates in German baking shops, while that of 12-14 hours is very frequent, and that even 16-18 hours and more occur.

The actual figures, which I have given so far, seem to admit of these two generalisations:—

1. What was said already in the introduction, viz., that in German industry with reference to the labour time (in consequence of the lack of any legal arrangement) a chaos exists.

2. That a regular worktime of 56 hours weekly, as in England, is the rare exception in Germany, but that here, on the contrary, even in the most developed branches of the large industry, a worktime of 11-12 hours daily is usual, which, by medical men and authorities on national economy, has long since been pronounced to be over-taxing and detrimental to the welfare of the population.

Germany's industry has to-day far outlived its infancy; it stands on a considerable height, and rivals even English industry in the market of the world. But as regards protection given to labourers, she is far behind England. The official press in Germany has often pointed to this country as the pioneer and principal leader in labour protection. Germany's exertions in this respect must, of course, be recognised. But, nevertheless, though tardy and slow, even in Germany the idea is beginning to gain ground that a reduction in the time of labour is strongly advisable in the national interest; and it is seen more and more clearly that such a reduction, if universally carried through, would not be injurious to the single factories, but would make them and their workmen more productive, grant to the entire working of the national industry a better organisation, and ensure its future more effectively. This idea has already many adherents in the public men of Germany, and among theoretical and practical national economists. The opponents are principally merchants and workmen, who overlook the fact that a moderate reduction in the worktime increases the capacity of production in the workmen, and therefore are afraid, if such a reduction were introduced, of a reduction in income and in piece-wages respectively. But even they are beginning to realise slowly the position, and in the

textile industry attempts are now frequently made to obtain, by a convention among manufacturers, a simultaneous and adequate reduction and organisation of the labour-time in those factories working under the same conditions. The German factory inspectors could not, also, entirely avoid being influenced by this tendency. Whoever reads their reports will be convinced that it is just their last reports that realise the bad effect caused by the extension of the working day most, and plead most earnestly for a rational arrangement of the same. We have given several examples of this already in previous pages. In this connection some observations and remarks of German factory inspectors with reference to the organisation of the labour-time may be cited:—

In the report of the inspector for Middle Franken and Lower Franken for 1886 we read:—"It is frequently stated that experience shows that in reducing the worktime the output does not decrease, because, to avoid a reduction in income, the shorter time is more diligently employed, and it is really remarkable that the effort is not more frequently met with in the industry, on the ground of this experience, to establish shorter worktime, which for all interested cannot but be beneficial and agreeable."

The factory inspector for Zwickau says in his report of 1888:—"The manufacturers themselves are opposed to the existing long working hours. Every employer, however, is shy of commencing a reduction, fearing that he will find too few followers, and that his capacity for competition will be curtailed. Among the greater part of the employers a regulation of the extent of working hours and restriction of the same to the time between 6 A.M. to 7 P.M. would not meet with any opposition."

The factory inspector for Chemnitz says that "among manufacturers the wish was frequently expressed to introduce a normal working day of 10 hours' actual labour-time, and this wish was founded upon the assertion that, as in many branches of industry the labour of young people cannot be dispensed with, the latter can only work for 10 hours, but that the time during which the older hands would be working longer would not be remunerative for them, and, on the other hand, too expensive for the employers."

By other inspectors it is observed, that with an excessively long labour time the capacity for work on the part of the workmen is diminished, and that accidents increase, because, as a matter of fact, even after 12 hours' work the elasticity and attention of workmen decreases. A reduction of the work time to about 10 hours is looked upon as the correct limit.

According to the reports of the year 1889 the manufacturers themselves, in many instances, as well as the factory inspectors, principally in the textile branch, endeavoured to reduce the time of labour, whereby the weekly labour time of 56 hours in England was held up as a pattern. The exertions, however, met with little success. The factory inspector for Baden especially tried to induce the textile factories to reduce their labour time from 12 hours to 11 hours. He met with opposition. For instance, the cotton mill proprietors declared that if such a reduction of labour time were

introduced, a proportionate reduction in the output must follow, and that the workman, therefore, with a reduction of labour time would have to put up also with an equivalent reduction in wages, or the manufacturer would have to increase the price for piecework. With reference to this the trade inspector remarks: "Without discussing the subject from this point, one must only remember that about 15 years ago, when the labour time of 13 hours was reduced to 12 hours (according to the uniform assertion of competent manufacturers), the output of labourers increased. Besides, a permanent raising of the piecework wages on the part of manufacturers is not so much the question. This objection is more or less an attempt to trade on the lack of expert judgment on the part of the authorities. In fact the entire reduction in the cost of production effected by improvements in machinery is borne by the workmen, as the piecework wages are reduced almost proportionately with the improvements in the machinery. It would be the greatest possible good fortune for the workman, and he could readily submit to a temporary reduction of 8 per cent. if it were possible to make the present piecework wages permanent, and if the proposal, directed to creating a fixed share in the profits of production, were not utopian. If, for instance, 25 years ago, the share, which is equivalent to the given piecework wages, had been made permanent then some groups of workmen in first-class factories would to-day be enjoying incomes which are equal to those of officers of high rank." The same official is in favour of a legal maximum labour time. For, he says, "as can be seen from observations made, many factories, in times when trade is brisk, as at present, use a portion of the nation's capital (which lies in the working force of the population) for their own benefit. If this has once commenced a single factory is powerless to resist this state of affairs, and even the well-meaning employer can in such instances not act otherwise than go with the stream. This as yet flows irregularly with us, and will, when it returns to its natural course, show as a consequence of such an ungoverned course, manifold disturbances, which hitherto have been looked upon as altogether unalterable."

The official finally remarks: "That also the manufacturers themselves feel acutely the consequences of the competition, and are beginning to be in favour of a maximum labour day fixed by law, or better still, one fixed upon internationally."

In the reports for the year 1891 the factory inspector for the second district of the kingdom of Würtemberg affirms that in the cotton mills and weaving sheds a universal reduction of the 12 hours or 11½ hours' worktime to 11 hours has not been introduced, as might have been hoped from the movement in this direction made in the past few years. It is just in the largest factories of the Black Forest districts, where no less than four are owned by one firm, that 12 hours' worktime is adhered to tenaciously. It is highly desirable that in cotton mills and weaving sheds a work time of 11 hours at the most should be agreed to. In addition it may be remarked that in the largest

cotton and weaving works in the Danube district the 11 hours work time has long since been introduced. What has lately occurred in the cotton mills at Rheine (district of Minden-Münster) is very interesting. In the year 1890 the labour time there was at first reduced to $11\frac{1}{2}$ hours, in order gradually to raise the productive capacity of the workmen to make up for the shortened work time. Towards the close of 1891 then the work time was further reduced in a large number of factories from $11\frac{1}{2}$ hours to 11 hours. The workmen in a big cotton mill, on the other hand, were employed, instead of 12 hours, for $12\frac{1}{2}$ hours, in utter contravention to an arrangement the factory owners had entered in 1887.

With reference to the influence of the reduction of labour time on production, the reports for the year 1891 contain the following remarks: "According to the statements of some factory owners no reduction at all in production can be noted in the weaving establishments, in consequence of the shorter worktime, and only a slight reduction is noticeable in the spinning trade; it is expected that with proper changes in the factories the former production will again be reached in the spinning factories."

According to the observations of the inspector for Baden, a favourable impression has been formed from the results obtained from the reduction of the labour time, and the work of the hands employed in all establishments with reduced hours, where occasion had presented itself for questioning about this state of affairs. The inspector reports, that the advantage is often discussed, which proceeds from the increased freshness of the workmen for the production. In general, this success could be foreseen, however, in many cases it caused surprise. In some factories of the textile industry, in which the machines had already previously worked so quickly that the speed could hardly be increased, and where the actual capacity of the machines gave a high percentage of the calculated possible production, it did not seem probable that this performance could so be raised as to counterbalance thereby the reduction in the labour time. The attentive power of the workmen (which in a certain degree was expressed in this above-named percentage, by their ability to avoid any long stoppages of the machinery, by quick and clever rectification of any faults), appeared to have reached almost the highest obtainable standard, if we reflect upon the reasons for the actual falling-off of the output, as compared with the calculated production. If, nevertheless, an increase in the production has taken place, and this too in such a measure as to be satisfactory to the employers as a result of the reduction, then the conclusion is, that human power of production within certain limits can be increased to a great extent, if every over taxation is carefully avoided. According to the observations of the inspector of Alsace-Lorraine in the textile industry there, which since the strike in 1890 has in its principal branches a labour time of 11 hours, the opinions regarding the merit of the former and present labour time are in some respects still divided. The factory inspector continues: "I have never felt

any doubt that the shorter worktime possesses essential advantages over a worktime of 12 hours and 13 hours. One employer said, that notwithstanding the reduction of the worktime from 12-12½ hours to 11 hours, his fall-off in production of goods (spinning and weaving) was only 3 per cent., but that the quality of the same had been greatly improved. Others express themselves similarly, and a spinning and mill proprietor said, the success of the reduction in the labour time has been so beneficial, that, as soon as the workmen would express their wishes to that effect, he would reduce his 11 hours' worktime by a further hour; he was convinced that not only the workmen, but that also he himself would be benefited thereby. The only doubtful matter is, will a local reduction in the worktime, which was a result of the strike here, have much effect, if, in other places, competitors, working even with entirely new machinery, continue with longer hours and thereby effect a reduction in the general expenses, inasmuch as staple goods are concerned, where taste and conscientious work are not the principal consideration.

With reference to this, complaints were made about the long working hours of competitors in Wiesenthal (Baden), Hof (Bavaria), and in Saxony; they also can be applied to the Saxon worsted yarn and spinning works.

Concluding
remarks.

It is hardly necessary to add anything in conclusion. The bad wages, of which I shall speak later on, and long hours, which are according to the above statements usual in Germany, with laudable exceptions, must necessarily influence the state of working classes unfavourably.

Statistics of Labour Wages in Germany.

Comparisons.

In the field of labour statistics Great Britain is also in advance of Germany. The German Empire as yet does not possess any regular labour statistics made by the State. The fact will cause surprise, that such a state of things can exist in a country in which for more than 10 years the Government has busied itself with nothing more eagerly than with social questions. It is only now that the Imperial Government is about to organise an institution for the development of regular statistics concerning labour. It is the "Commission for Labour Statistics," which, created by the Bill of April 1, 1892, commenced its activity on June 23 last. The Commission in the first place has decided on making written enquiries in the confectionery and baking trades, as well as in mills and commercial trades. No results as yet are known. As soon, however, as they are published, I will return to this subject.

The Commission is a tardy fulfilment of an urgent necessity which has been long felt in Germany. The modern Legislation of the Empire with reference to the protection of labour has created a whole army of social political officials, who see fit to occupy themselves with labour statistics in order to fulfil in one way or another their official duties. We need only mention the institution

for insuring against sickness and the inspecting of manufactories. German labourers, especially those organised as trade unions, have already for years been occupied with the preparation of labour statistics, which serve partially for the trade itself, partially for political purposes. Finally the socialistic school now prevailing in the national economical science of Germany has created quite a staff of scientifically schooled helpers, who have improved the work of German labour statistics by many valuable essays. In this way a whole series of scattered social political papers have been written, which, although they do not offer a uniform picture, still give, in their mosaic-like composition, an interesting view of the industrial life of German labourers. In the following pages we will reproduce some of the material at hand.

The law for insuring against sickness makes it compulsory on the authorities to decide on the so-called local average daily wages in all cities, *i.e.*, the wages for common labour. In this way a vast mass of statistics regarding the common labour wages of Germany has been collected, which show the greatest variety in the different parts of the country. In a few places the customary daily wages for adults, which comprises male labourers above 16 years of age, is less than 1 mark.

The following table gives the statistics of these different parts of Germany:—

District.	Amount.	
	From—	To—
	Pfennigs.	Pfennigs.
Gumbinnen	80	..
Marienwerder	80	90
Köslin	95	..
Posen	95	..
Breslau	80	95
Oppeln	80	90
Erfurt	80	..
Cassel	80	..
Oberpfalz	80	..

The following table gives the cities where the highest wages are paid, *viz.*, 2 marks 50 pf. and more for adult male labourers:—

Cities.	Amount.	
	From—	To—
	M. pf.	M. pf.
Spandau	2 50	2 70
District of Eiderstedt (Schleswig) ..		
The environs of Hamburg ..		
District of the powder factory, Hanau		
Cologne and environs		
Karlsruhe	3 0	..
Metz		
Lindau		
Kiel.. .. .		
Hamburg with St. Pauli		
Bergedorf	3 0	..
Bremen		
Bremerhaven		
Geestemünde		

Berlin, for example, is not mentioned in these tables, as the wages there amount to 2 marks 40 pf. For Frankfort o/Main and its environs the scale of the customary local daily wages from January 1, 1893, was raised. They amount for—

	Above 16 Years.		Below 16 Years.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
	M. pf.	M. pf.	M. pf.	M. pf.
Frankfort and neighbourhood	2 50	1 80	1 40	1 0
Wiesbaden and neighbourhood	2 20	1 40	1 20	1 0
Province of Nassau (Wiesbaden excepted) ..	2 0	1 20	1 20	1 0
Dill and Biedenkopf ..	1 80	1 20	1 0	0 80

In the previous tables only the wages of adult male labourers have been given; the wages for juvenile and female labour are, of course, lower. But the wages of the adult male labourers give, on the whole, a fair idea of the entire state of labour.

Highest
wages.

The maximum of wages is found in the west, rich in industries, and in the north-west of the Empire, where commerce and shipping are carried on; these are the harbours and the towns at the mouth of the Elbe and the Werra and their environs, the port of Kiel, the district of Eiderstedt in Schleswig, the industrial cities like Spandau, Cologne, Mülheim o/Rhine, Karlsruhe, Lindau in Bavaria, Metz, and finally, perhaps, only for local reasons the district near the powder factory of Hanau.

Founded upon these materials of insurance against sickness

very interesting tables have been prepared with reference to the Kingdom of Prussia. From the multitude of figures and cities, which scarcely can be grasped, averages for the different provinces and free cities have been struck, and the following table has thereby been obtained. On the average the local customary wages are—

	Adults.		Juveniles.	
	Male.		Female.	
	M. pf.	M. pf.	M. pf.	M. pf.
East Prussia	1 17	0 70	0 60	0 42
West „	1 26	0 79	0 62	0 52
Brandenburg	1 50	0 90	0 73	0 59
Pomerania	1 26	0 76	0 60	0 51
Posen	1 09	0 66	0 53	0 39
Silesia	1 02	0 67	0 57	0 43
Saxony	1 57	0 95	0 89	0 72
Schleswig-Holstein ..	2 0	0 89	1 26	0 71
Hanover	1 59	1 08	0 87	0 67
Westphalia	1 49	1 05	0 86	0 69
Hesse-Nassau	1 64	1 10	0 91	0 73
Rhenish Province ..	1 77	1 20	0 93	0 72
Hohenzollern	1 60	1 03	0 83	0 63
Berlin	2 40	1 50	1 30	1 0
Hamburg	2 22	1 39	0 96	0 96
Bremen	2 50	2 0	1 25	1 25
Lübeck	2 20	1 0	1 60	0 80

Divided into provinces, the wages for adult male labourers are:—

					Amount.
					M. pf.
Worst in—					
Silesia	..	..	..	..	1 02
Posen	..	..	..	..	1 09
East Prussia	..	..	..	..	1 17
Best in—					
Schleswig-Holstein ..	..	..	..	..	2 0
Rhenish Province ..	..	..	..	..	1 77
Hesse-Nassau	..	..	..	..	1 64

The cities of—					M. pf.
Bremen	..	..	..	..	2 50
Hamburg	..	..	..	..	2 40
Berlin	..	..	..	..	2 22
Lübeck	..	..	..	..	2 20

with their wages stand higher than even the best provincial averages. It must, however, not be forgotten that in the averages for the provinces the larger cities have been taken in consideration together with the rural districts. For this reason we would not be justified in simply comparing the provincial averages with the figures for the

above four cities; in these only the large city wages come in consideration, which generally are higher than those of the smaller towns, as will be seen later on.

The adult and female labourers receive the highest and lowest wages, viz. :—

Provinces.	Amount.	
	Highest.	Lowest.
	M. pf.	M. pf.
Rhenish	1 20	..
Hesse-Nassau	1 10	..
Posen	..	0 66
Silesia	..	0 67

The above cities, with the exception of Lübeck (1 mark), rank also here above the highest provincial averages, viz. :

City.	Amount.
	M. pf.
Bremen	2 0
Berlin	1 50
Hamburg	1 39

The juvenile labourers, namely, those below 16 years of age, are best paid in Schleswig-Holstein with 1 mark 26 pf., lowest in Posen with 53 pf.; the youthful female labourers best in Hesse-Nassau with 73 pf., worst in Posen with 43 pf.

Wages geo-
graphically
considered.

To correctly understand the geographical differences of the wages it must be remarked that in the east of the kingdom of Prussia, east of the Elbe, the prices of provisions in general are cheaper than in the west. The local differences in wages show a certain coincidence with the difference in the prices of provisions. Where these latter are cheaper there exist also lower wages. This close connection between prices of articles of food and wages in general is very remarkable. It seems to point to the fact that the common wages are close to the minimum limit of existence, which fact, moreover, is also to be seen if we regard the absolute rate of wages.

How incredibly low the wages are in some places a few examples will prove. In the district of Schildberg in the province of Posen (East) the wage for adult male labour is 75 pf.; in the province of East Prussia in the district of Gumbinnen, even in cities, small of course, and also in the province of West Prussia, a wage of 80 pf. occurs. Young, working women in some East Prussian cities receive but 40 pf. and even 20 pf. daily. Including the free cities for all Prussia the average wages amounted to :—

					Amount.	
					M.	pf.
For men	..	..	..	..	1	46
women..	..	..	..	..	0	95
young men	..	..	..	..	0	80
" women..	..	..	..	..	0	62

The eastern provinces rank below the average, namely, East and West Prussia, Pomerania, Posen, and Silesia. Westphalia and Brandenburg show about the average. The other provinces and the free cities are above the average.

The comparison of the wages according to the size of the cities affords special interest. The following three tables give the amount of wages for Prussian cities containing over 100,000 inhabitants, 50,000 to 100,000 inhabitants, and 20,000 to 50,000 inhabitants:—

CITIES with Over 100,000 Inhabitants.

Cities.	Adults.		Juveniles.	
	Male.		Female.	
	M.	pf.	M.	pf.
Berlin	2	40	1	50
Breslau	1	60	1	0
Cologne	2	50	1	50
Königsburg	1	70	0	70
Frankfort o/Main	2	40	1	70
Hanover	2	0	1	50
Dantzig	1	80	1	25
Hamburg	2	50	1	85
Bremen	2	50	2	0

CITIES with from 50,000 Inhabitants to 100,000 Inhabitants.

Cities.	Adults.		Juveniles.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Magdeburg	M. pf.	M. pf.	M. pf.	M. pf.
Barmen	2 0	1 40	1 20	1 0
Düsseldorf	2 40	1 50	1 0	0 80
Elberfeld	2 40	1 50	1 20	0 80
Stettin	2 0	1 0	1 0	0 80
Altona	2 50	1 0	1 0	0 60
Aachen	2 0	1 20	1 80	1 0
Crefeld	2 40	1 50	1 0	0 70
Halle o/S.	2 10	1 40	1 20	1 0
Dortmund	2 0	1 40	1 20	1 0
Posen	1 60	1 0	1 20	0 80
Kassel	2 12	1 38	0 75	0 50
Essen	2 40	1 50	1 22	0 80
Erfurt	1 60	1 50	1 20	0 80
Frankfort o/Oder ..	1 40	0 90	0 70	0 70
Görlitz	1 60	1 0	0 60	0 60
Wiesbaden	2 10	1 40	0 80	0 60
			1 0	0 65

CITIES with from 20,000 Inhabitants to 50,000 Inhabitants.

Cities.	Adults.		Juveniles.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Potsdam	M. pf. 1 85	M. pf. 0 90	M. pf. 0 80	M. pf. 0 70
Kiel	2 70	1 0	1 60	0 80
Duisburg	2 40	1 50	1 20	0 80
Münster i/W. ..	2 25	1 50	1 0	0 75
München-Gladbach ..	2 0	1 50	1 0	0 80
Liegnitz	1 50	1 0	0 60	0 80
Elbing	1 50	1 0	0 65	0 55
Bromberg	1 50	1 0	1 0	0 75
Bochum	2 20	1 50	1 10	0 90
Osnabrück	1 80	1 20	1 10	0 80
Bonn	2 0	1 20	1 0	0 80
Halberstadt	2 0	1 20	0 90	0 80
Flensburg	2 0	0 80	1 30	0 60
Bielefeld	1 80	1 40	1 20	0 80
Coblenz	1 80	1 20	1 0	0 40
Charlottenburg ..	2 0	1 0	0 75	0 50
Remscheid	2 20	1 50	1 0	0 80
Stralsund	1 50	1 0	0 60	0 40
Spandau	2 50	1 50	0 80	0 80
Brandenburg o/H. ..	2 0	1 20	0 90	0 90
Königshütte	1 20	0 80	0 60	0 60
Neustadt-Magdeburg ..	2 0	1 20	1 0	0 75
Hagen i/W.	2 10	1 40	1 20	1 0
Nordhausen	1 20	0 80	0 60	0 60
Hildesheim	1 80	1 25	1 10	1 0
Guben	1 20	0 80	0 60	0 60
Kottbus	1 20	0 80	0 60	0 60
Trier	1 60	1 35	0 70	0 50
Landsberg	1 20	0 80	0 60	0 60
Mülhausen i/Th. ..	1 60	0 90	0 70	0 70
Hanau	1 75	1 25	1 0	0 70
Benthen i/Upper Silesia	1 20	0 80	0 60	0 60
Linden	1 50	1 0	1 0	0 60
Stargard i/Pomerania ..	1 20	0 70	0 50	0 40
Schweidnitz	1 30	0 85	0 70	0 50
Mülheim o/Ruhr ..	2 50	1 50	1 50	1 0
Stolp i/Pomerania ..	1 60	1 10	1 0	0 65
Witten	2 20	1 50	1 10	0 90
Tilsit	1 20	0 80	0 50	0 40
Viersen	2 0	1 50	1 0	0 80
Hamm	1 75	1 40	1 20	0 80
Thorn	1 20	0 80	0 60	0 60
Wesel	2 0	1 40	1 0	0 80
Neisse	1 10	0 80	0 80	0 70
Mülheim o/Rhein ..	2 50	1 50	1 50	1 0

On the average in Prussia the wages amounted to:—

Inhabitants.	Adults.		Juveniles.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
	M. pf.	M. pf.	M. pf.	M. pf.
In cities with more than—				
100,000	2 16	1 44	1 15	0 84
50,000 to 100,000	2 06	1 27	1 06	0 77
20,000 to 50,000	1 77	1 14	0 92	0 70
In places with up to—				
20,000	1 44	0 94	0 79	0 61

This gives quite a perceptible decrease in wages according to the different sizes of the cities. It is true that in general articles of food, rents and other necessities of life are dearer in the larger cities. The advance in the price of goods, however, is probably greater than that of the wages. From this we may gather that, taking everything into consideration the labourer in a large city, notwithstanding the higher minimum wage, is nevertheless worse off than the labourer in a smaller city or in the country. From the above tables of daily wages people have tried to calculate the yearly income of workmen and their families. Counting 250 working days in a year the earnings of the men and the women and of both together in the various provinces of the Prussian State would amount to—

Provinces.	Amount.		
	Men.	Women.	Total.
	M. pf.	M. pf.	M. pf.
Silesia	255 0	167 50	422 50
Posen	272 50	165 0	437 50
East Prussia	292 50	175 0	467 50
Pomerania	315 0	190 0	505 0
West Prussia	315 0	197 50	512 50
Brandenburg	375 0	225 0	600 0
Saxony	392 50	237 50	630 0
Westphalia	372 50	262 50	634 0
Hanover	397 50	270 0	667 50
Hesse	410 0	275 0	685 0
Schleswig-Holstein	500 0	222 50	722 50
Rhein	442 50	300 0	742 50

The same calculation may be applied to the cities. Then the following table of income would result—

Inhabitants.	Amount.					
	Men.		Women.		Total.	
	M.	pf.	M.	pf.	M.	pf.
From 100,000 ..	540	0	360	0	900	0
From 50,000 to 100,000 ..	515	0	317	50	832	50
20,000 50,000 ..	442	50	285	0	727	50
Up to 20,000 ..	360	0	235	0	595	0

For the whole kingdom the average income amounts to—for men, 365 marks; women, 240 marks; both, 605 marks. 365 marks would thus be the average yearly income of an unskilled, adult labourer, 240 marks of the untrained worker, 605 marks of the working family, if the wife goes to work as well as the husband.

Hitherto we have only considered the wages of unskilled labourers, who, however, through the modern development of machinery that tends more and more to make skilled labour superfluous, form a portion of the working classes, which must not be undervalued. However, the income of skilled workmen may be calculated at least approximately.

A means hereto is offered by the Accident Insurance Fund of the German Empire. The manufacturers in every branch of trade, who are obliged to insure their men against accidents, are formed into large corporations, the so-called "trade guilds," which may be taken technically as the unity in insurance. Each union embraces all those factories in the branch, which must insure in the whole Empire; only a few branches have, on account of their special size, trade societies, which are separated according to their districts. For the purpose of calculating the amounts to be paid in case of accidents, the different trade societies have to estimate the usual wage in their respective branch of trade. This is naturally done with the greatest care and high technical knowledge, and, therefore, these estimates afford very valuable help in judging of the wages in the different trades. Of course these estimates are inaccurate in some respects. For instance, the wages of the working women and of juvenile labourers are estimated as equal to that of an adult labourer, and the fraction of wages exceeding 4 marks daily is only calculated at the rate of a third. Notwithstanding these deviations, the estimates offer an approximately correct picture of the rates of wages in the different branches. At any rate, the figures for the various branches, which all labour under the same incompleteness, can be mutually compared; therefore, the estimates of the trade unions in any case give a correct view of the relation of wages in the different branches to each other. After these introductory remarks, I now give the following table, arranged according to the amount of wages of the average yearly wages of the several trade unions:—

Description.	Amount.
	Marks.
Rhenish-Westphalian forges and rolling mills	1,002
Breweries and malting houses	973
Gas and water works.	952
Forwarding and storehouses	897
Printing establishments	896
Rhenish-Westphalian machine factories	894
North-Western iron and steel industry	894
North-Eastern " "	884
South-Western iron industry	843
Southern iron and steel industry	837
Mechanical works	837
Saxony-Thuringia iron and steel industry	828
Mining industry	827
Private railroads	792
Chemical industry	787
Leather " "	780
West German inland navigation	762
Bavarian wood industry	754
South German fine and base metal industry	753
Hamburg building industry	749
North German fine and base metal industry	748
Articles of food industry	705
Music and instruments industry	698
Industries working up paper	682
North German wood manufacturing industry	661
Boatmen on the Elbe	659
Pottery industry	658
Glass " "	653
North-Eastern building industry	645
South-Western " "	643
Coaching business	642
Saxony wood industry	629
" building industry	627
Rhenish-Westphalian building industry	614
Silk industry.	613
Milling " "	608
Silesian iron and steel industry	606
Rhenish Westphalian textile industry	603
South-Western wood industry	586
Distilling industry	579
Paper manufacture	572
Wurtemberg building industry	568
Sea trade	564
South German textile industry	559
Alsatian " "	559
North German " "	550
Hessian-Nassau building industry.	545
Clothing industry	538
Linen " "	537
Bavarian building industry	527
East German inland navigation	485
Tobacco industry	457
Thuringian building industry	455
Drainage building	452
Silesian-Posen building industry	449
" textile industry	442
Brick manufacturing industry	405
Saxony textile industry	380
Stone industry	314
Hanoverian building industry	313
Magdeburg " "	263

The average wages for all trades, *i.e.*, for all the above-mentioned trades, amount to 628 marks. The statistics of wages hitherto considered are based on estimates which offer the best possible guarantee for reliability.

They originate partially from Government officials, partially from trade corporations; it is of great public interest to have such reliable estimates, and the sphere of control is very extensive. They, at all events, have the advantage of being comprehensive as they embrace the whole Empire.

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OF LUCIFER MATCHES IN GERMANY AND
PRUSSIA.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty,
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No. 311.

GERMANY.

BERLIN.

Sir E. Malet to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Berlin, December 12, 1893.

I HAVE the honour to enclose a Memorandum which has been drawn up by Mr. Percy Wyndham, embodying the Laws and Regulations in force in Germany and Prussia with regard to the Manufacture of Lucifer Matches.

I have, &c.
(Signed) E. B. MALET.

Report on the Regulations regarding the Manufacture of Lucifer Matches in Germany and Prussia.

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Commission of 1879.

In 1879 the Reichstag resolved to petition the Imperial Commission Chancellor to take steps to prohibit the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches and simultaneously with this prohibition to impose an increased import duty on matches.

A commission composed of specialists was accordingly appointed to examine "whether in order to check necrosis it was necessary to prohibit the use of white phosphorus in manufacturing matches, or whether a decree regulating the construction and management of match factories would have the desired effect." From the evidence laid before the commission, it was shown that since 1857, when regulations had been

(1670)

first issued in Prussia, the malady had been in many places on the increase. The simplest means to stamp out the disease would be to prohibit the use of white phosphorus. Yet it was possible to instance many factories in which proper precautions had been taken, and in which no case of the disease had occurred for years.

A measure of so stringent a nature would cause an undue interference with the trade, and the export of German matches would be exposed to an unfair competition with that of other countries, where no prohibitions, such as those proposed, were in force. It was therefore thought more desirable to regulate the use of white phosphorus, and to frame such a measure as would prevent its employment in household industry, where its effect had been shown to be especially injurious. The efforts of the commission resulted in the law of May 13, 1884, which provides that:—

Law of May 13, 1884.

Law of May
13, 1884.

1. The manufacture of lucifer matches with white phosphorus shall only be conducted in buildings which are entirely devoted to the manufacture of matches.

2. Juvenile workmen (Section 136 of the Industrial Code) are not to remain in rooms in which—

a. The phosphorus ("Zündmasse") is being mixed.

b. The wood is being dipped.

c. The wood which has been dipped is being dried.

d. Children (Section 135, par. 1 and 2, of the Industrial Code) are not to remain in the rooms where the matches are first placed in boxes and packed.

3. A breach of the regulations under Section 1 is punishable with a fine not exceeding 300 marks, and with imprisonment in case of inability to pay. Besides this punishment the implements employed in such manufacture, not being fixtures, shall be liable to confiscation as also the matches so produced.

4. A breach of the regulations under Section 2 is punishable with a fine not exceeding 2,000 marks (100*l.*), in case of inability to pay with a term of imprisonment not exceeding six months.

Fines levied under the above regulations will be paid into the fund mentioned under Section 116 of the Industrial Code.

5. These regulations shall only apply to already existing factories after the space of two years.

6. The following regulation is to be added to No. 5, *e*, of the Customs Code of July 15, 1879:—

"Lucifer matches and wax matches are taxed at 10 marks the 100 kilos." This regulation shall come into force from July 1.

Berlin, May 13, 1884.

This law was followed by the Declaration of July 11, 1884.

Declaration of July 11, 1884.

With a view to carrying out the law of May 13, 1884, respecting the manufacture and taxation of lucifer matches, the Bundesrath, having in regard Section 120, par. *e*, of the Industrial Code, have made the following decree, regulating the management of the establishments in which white phosphorus is used in manufacturing lucifer matches.

Declaration
of July 11,
1884.

1. Each of the following operations.

(*a*) Mixing the phosphorus.

(*b*) Dipping the wood.

(*c*) Drying the wood which has been dipped.

(*d*) Placing the wood in boxes and packing it for the first time, must be conducted in special rooms.

These rooms may only be immediately connected with each other and not with other work-rooms, dwelling-rooms or business-rooms. Direct communication is, however, allowed between the room where the wood is dipped and where it is laid by, as also between the room where the matches are first placed in the boxes and packed and where the finished goods are stored. Each of the abovementioned rooms is to be exclusively used for the particular operation to which it is assigned, but the same room in which the wood is dipped (*b*) may also be used for impregnating the wood with sulphur and paraffin.

2. The rooms in which the operations comprised under Section 1, *a*, *b*, *d*, are conducted must be at least 5 metres in height, the rooms mentioned under *b* and *d* must have fire-proof ceilings, the drying rooms *c* must be fire-proof throughout. The walls of the rooms in which the operations comprised under *a*, *b*, *d*, are conducted must be covered with a coating of lime, which coating is to be washed off and renewed every six months.

3. The rooms in which the phosphorus is prepared must be so arranged that there is a constant change of air, sufficient to remove all phosphoric exhalations.

The preparation of the phosphorus may only take place in closed air-tight vessels, the mouth of which is so contrived as to serve at the same time as a safety valve.

Vessels containing phosphorus are to be constantly kept covered.

4. The operation of dipping the wood must be attended with such precautions as shall prevent phosphor exhalations, penetrating into the work rooms.

If the material in which the wood is dipped be warm, only such appliances as have been approved by the higher officials shall be used in dipping the wood.

5. The rooms in which the wood is dried after dipping must be well ventilated.

In artificially heated drying rooms the temperature must not exceed 35 degrees Celsius.

In every drying room there must be a thermometer, placed

in such a way that it can be read from the outside of the room, upon which the highest temperature which may be reached is clearly marked.

The rooms are only to be cleared out and put in order (if they have to be entered for this purpose) when they have been thoroughly ventilated for the space of half-an-hour by means of the doors and windows being opened or by means of special artificial ventilation.

6. The rooms in which the matches are placed in boxes and such rooms as are specially used for packing the matches must be so constructed that every workman occupied in them should have breathing space of 10 cubic metres. These rooms must be furnished with windows which can be opened and with suitable appliances for ventilation.

7. The rooms marked under Section 1, *a, b, d*, are to be cleaned out daily after the conclusion of work. The rubbish is at once to be burnt.

8. The employer must see that the labourers employed in the rooms marked under Section 1, *a* to *d*, wear a special overcoat or an apron which covers them as well above as below the waist.

He must see that the workmen on leaving the work-rooms take off these garments and leave them in a special separate room.

In this room there must be separate cupboards for hanging up the working clothes and the ordinary clothes, which latter are to be taken off before the commencement of work.

9. The employer must not allow the workmen to bring food into the work-rooms or to eat there. He must see that meals are only taken in rooms which are quite separated from the work-rooms and from the dressing and undressing-rooms. Outside the working-rooms there must be appliances for warming food.

10. Outside the work-rooms, but close to them, there must be arrangements for washing sufficient for the use of the workmen employed, and also a sufficient number of bowls for rinsing the mouth.

11. The employer must see that the workmen wash their hands thoroughly before taking their meals and leaving the factory; also that they thoroughly rinse out the mouth with water and take off the overcoats or aprons which they have worn during work.

12. The employer may only admit such persons to work in the rooms under Section 1, *a* to *d*, as have received a certificate from a certified doctor that they are not suffering from necrosis, and that they are not particularly liable to this disease.

These certificates are to be kept and shown when required to the inspecting officers (Section 139, *b*, of the Industrial Code).

13. The employer shall entrust a certified doctor, whom he shall name to the inspecting officer, with the inspection of the

health of his workmen. This doctor shall, in the course of the first year after these regulations come into force, make a monthly examination of the workmen. He shall afterwards examine them at least every quarter and inform the employer of any case of necrosis.

The employer is bound to inform the inspecting officer in writing of any case of necrosis which has occurred amongst his workmen and come to his knowledge through the doctor or by some other means. He shall no longer employ a workman suffering from sulphur poison in the rooms under Section 1, *a* to *d*.

14. The employer is bound to keep a book from which may be seen how long the workmen remain in his service and when they change from it. In this book are to be entered the workman's surname and Christian name and the date when he enters and leaves the service; also the observations of the factory-doctor and their date. This book is to be shown to the inspecting officer (139, *b*, of the Industrial Code) when required.

15. In every work-room a copy of Section 2 of the law of May 13, 1884, and a copy of Sections 1 to 14 of these regulations is to be hung up in a conspicuous place with a notice regarding the precautions to be observed by the workmen in the particular room in which they are occupied. This notice is to be given to every workman employed under Section 1, *a* to *d*, when he joins.

16. The manufacture of matches with white phosphorus may only be begun on new premises after their construction has been notified to the proper inspecting officer. This officer shall, as soon as possible after the receipt of this notification, personally inspect the building and see that its construction is in conformity with regulations.

17. In case of a breach of Section 1 of the law of May 13, 1884, and of Sections 1 to 16 of these regulations, the police may require the suspension of work until the regulations have been complied with.

18. Sections 1, 2, 3, clause 2, and Section 6 shall only be applicable to already existing factories two years after the law of May 13, 1884, comes into force.

Exceptions may be allowed to Sections 1 and 2, clause 1, of these regulations by the Federal Council in favour of factories which were worked before their publication, and whose existing appliances have been shown to be free from danger.

Berlin, July 11, 1884.

Declaration of July 8, 1893.

These regulations were re-enacted with but slight alterations on July 8, 1893. Declaration
of July 8,
1893.

In Section 13 the provision that the workmen should be examined monthly was omitted; the examination was to take place at least quarterly.

Section 18 was also altered as follows:—

The above regulations shall come into force on the day of their promulgation in the place of the Chancellor's declaration of July 11, 1884.

The exceptions granted by the Federal Council under Section 18, clause 2, to the regulations under Sections 1, and 2, clause 1, remain in force until such time as they may be cancelled.

Berlin, July 8, 1893.

Application of Industrial Code.

Application of
industrial
code.

Besides these regulations Section 16 of the Industrial Code is applied to match factories.

Section 16. In order to erect works which by their position or nature cause any appreciable disadvantage, danger or nuisance to the neighbouring proprietors or inhabitants, it is necessary according to law to obtain the permission of the proper authorities.

It would appear from the above regulations that the observance of special rules is considered sufficient for the suppression of necrosis, without the prohibition of the use of white phosphorus.

No white lucifer matches may be made except in duly licensed factories which are under proper inspection. The processes of mixing, dipping, drying, and placing the wood in boxes are to be conducted in rooms separate from the rest of the factory. The workmen employed in these rooms are to wear overcoats or aprons protecting them both above and below the waist, and these they must remove before leaving the factory. The workmen are to be under medical inspection, a register is to be kept of their state of health, and no person subject to necrosis is to be employed in the departments where he would be liable to suffer from the effect of the fumes. Workmen are not allowed to eat in the work-rooms. They must be provided with ample means for washing and rinsing the mouth.

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1894.
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N^o. 312.

REPORTS ON SUBJECTS OF GENERAL AND
COMMERCIAL INTEREST.

GERMANY.

REPORT ON
LIFE INSURANCE IN GERMANY.

*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty,
JANUARY, 1894.*

LONDON:
PRINTED FOR HER MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE,
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1894.

[C. 6856—60.]

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policies during the lifetime of the insured varied considerably with the thirty-eight German Life Institutions. The total was 27,083 policies for 107,450,000 marks, or about 5,372,000*l.* Of these, 978 policies for 5,310,000 marks expired by the sums falling due. On the other hand, 26,105 policies for 102,640,000 marks or about 5,132,000*l.* lapsed either by repurchase, reduction of the sums insured, or non-payment of premiums.

The figures are illustrative of the condition of the people in general. It must be acknowledged that progress remains very slow. On the other hand, it cannot be denied that the middle classes are beginning to understand and appreciate the merits of life insurance, and it has undoubtedly a better future before it. Progress has been assisted by a provision of the Prussian income tax law which expressly exempts all premiums up to 600 marks, or 30*l.*, on life insurance from income taxation.

The year 1892 was a favourable one for the life insurance institutions. For although characterised by the cholera, comparatively fewer highly insured lives were terminated by it than in 1855. Somewhat more effective was the influenza. It is, however, observed that, in general, epidemics are more fatal to lives insured for small than large amounts.

Complaint is made that with the sharpening of competition, the life insurance companies are beginning to adopt practices and methods formerly considered immoral, or illegitimate, such as granting discount to insurers, loud advertisements, laxer conditions of insurance, unjust descriptions of competitors, and holding out prospects of high, even impossible bonuses.

Popular or working class life insurance on the model of the English "Prudential" is finding imitation in Germany, and with remarkable success. Of the German companies in this class of life insurance, the "Friedrich Wilhelm" in 1892 opened no less than 80,819 new policies for about 11,500,000 marks (575,000*l.*) showing an average of 142 marks, or about 7*l.* sterling, and has a total of 285,971 policies for 42,467,032 marks, or an average of 148 marks. Another company, the "Victoria," between March 15 and the close of the year, granted 73,379 policies for 21,555,227 marks, or an average of about 292 marks, of which on December 31, 62,298 policies for 18,290,823 marks were still in force. These encouraging facts are, however, accompanied by the serious drawback, that owing to the want of prudence and reflection of the masses a very large proportion of the policies are allowed to lapse by non-payment of premiums. The Friedrich Wilhelm lost in this way 24,837 policies, and the Victoria a full seventh of its total policies.

In 1892 the thirty-eight German life institutions received 102,994 new propositions for 525,840,000 marks, showing a fair increase for the year. In 1892, 26,270 applications for 125,180,000 marks were rejected, or about 23 per cent., so that the net growth for the year was 83,108 policies for 400,700,000 marks or about 20,035,000*l.* In 1891 the increase was only 75,812 policies for 362,810,000 marks.

FOREIGN OFFICE.

1894.

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N^o. 316.

REPORTS ON SUBJECTS OF GENERAL AND
COMMERCIAL INTEREST.

GERMANY.

PRÉCIS OF

MEMORANDA LAID BEFORE THE REICHSTAG
RESPECTING THE GERMAN SOUTH-WEST
AFRICAN AND EAST AFRICAN PROTECTO-
RATES.

*Issued during the Recess and Presented to both Houses of Parliament
by Command of Her Majesty.*

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No. 316.

GERMANY.

BERLIN.

Sir E. Malet to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Berlin, December 16, 1893.

I HAVE the honour to transmit to your Lordship herewith a Précis of two Memoranda respecting the German South-West and East African Protectorates, which were laid before the Reichstag on the 17th ultimo. This Précis has been prepared by Mr. Whitehead.

I have, &c.

(Signed) E. B. MALET.

Précis of Memoranda respecting the German South-West and East African Protectorates.

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GERMAN SOUTH-WEST AFRICAN PROTECTORATE.

General Character of the Country.

The South-West African Protectorate is not a tropical colony, nor is it remarkable for its fertility or natural products. The coast strip is sandy for a distance of 50 kiloms. inland, and the interior districts suffer from want of water. On the other hand it has an excellent climate, extensive pasture lands suitable for European colonisation, and a very sparse native population. Its geographical position is also in its favour, as the shortest route from Europe to the important districts of the Upper Zambesi will eventually lie through it.

Climate.

Dr. Karl Dove, who has established a meteorological station at Windhoek in the service of the German Colonial Society, has recently expressed himself as follows upon the subject:—"The mean temperature of the Protectorate is at least one degree (Réaumur) lower than has hitherto been supposed. Although the mid-day temperature is far higher than in central Europe it is not so unpleasant as the summer heat in most parts of Germany. If one has sufficient protection for the head against the direct rays of the sun, I have found it quite possible to undertake long marches even in the hottest part of the day. The colonists work in the fields without any bad effects from the heat. The reason of this is the extreme dryness of the atmosphere, which, together with the high altitude of Windhoek (3,800 feet), make it one of the healthiest climates in the world."

During the past year rain has been exceptionally abundant—the rivers were fuller than usual, and the pasture better. This had no bad effect upon the public health, however, and there were no epidemics.

Cattle Breeding.

There is no doubt that cattle breeding on a large scale is possible in the South-West African Protectorate. Horned cattle, sheep and goats get on well, and increase with exceptional rapidity. Horse-breeding, however, suffers from the periodical outbreaks of disease, against which no remedy has as yet been discovered. The soil and climate would also be favourable for ostrich farming.

Markets.

The most important condition for the success of European colonisation in the Protectorate is to find a market for the products of its grazing lands.

Export of live cattle by land. The best sale for cattle is found by exporting them overland to the markets of the Cape Colony and the Transvaal. In those

countries there is a steady demand for cattle and sheep for slaughter, and the Damara oxen are also highly valued for draught purposes. At present about 6,000 head of horned cattle and 10,000 sheep and goats are exported every year. An ox, which in the Protectorate costs 2*l.* to 3*l.*, will sell in the above-named markets for 4*l.* to 6*l.*, and a fat tailed sheep, bought in Great Namaqualand for 6*s.*, is worth 12*s.* at Kimberley. The demand of the industrial centres, such as Kimberley and Johannesburg, will increase rather than decrease, but the difficulty at present lies in the dangers arising in the transport of large herds of cattle through a wild country. In view of the importance of this export trade it must be one of the first cares of the administration to facilitate this transport by all means in their power. In the first place better roads must be made, and the exporters must be protected from the extortions of the native chiefs through whose territory they pass. It would also be of great use to the exporters if strips of pasture were assigned to them along the principal routes, in order that the cattle may arrive in good condition.

It cannot at present be foreseen whether cattle can be exported by sea from the Protectorate. The "Compagnie des produits du Congo" has taken several hundred bullocks and draught oxen to the Congo in this way, but the trade has not at present expanded any further. If a regular German steamship service were established on the West African coast, it might be attempted, with some chance of success, to supply the ports which are in need of fresh meat. Export of cattle by sea.

Neither can it be prophesied at present whether South-West Africa will be able to compete with America and Australia in the exportation of manufactured meat products (extracts, &c.). It is proposed to make an experiment in the cheap production of these articles at the mouth of the Swakop, and the result of this experiment must be awaited before a definite opinion can be formed in the matter. Export of manufactured meat products.

In the absence of railways, wool and Angora fleece can only be brought to the coast in ox-waggons—but this mode of transport will not prove very expensive, as the waggons now generally go down to the ports empty, in order to bring up imported goods. Export of wool and Angora fleece

The administration are doing their best to combat the various forms of cattle disease which occur in the Protectorate, especially lung disease, and a decree has been issued on the subject which works well, and to which even the natives pay attention. Until it is possible to exercise a more effective control over the frontier traffic it will be difficult to prevent the introduction of lung disease. On the other hand the conditions of the country make it easy to isolate infected cattle. Cattle disease.

A capable veterinary surgeon has been sent out by the German Colonial Society in order to study the local cattle diseases, especially the horse plague.

Agriculture.

Southern and
central
districts.

As the rainfall in the southern and central portions of the Protectorate is not distributed over the whole year, but occurs within a comparatively short space of time, agriculture on a large scale will hardly be possible. In places where artificial irrigation can be applied, corn, maize, tobacco, and most European garden plants can be grown with success. Fruit trees, and in some places the date palm, also flourish. With regard to vineyard culture Dr. Karl Dove writes: "No culture has a greater future before it in our climate than that of the vine. The Protectorate will be able to produce wine and raisins equal to those of the Cape Colony if the vineyards are under the management of experts.

"That the vine prospers and gives good results has been proved by the experiments in the Government garden at Otyimbingue and in what was formerly the garden of the Rhenish Mission at Little Windhoek."

The localities suitable for agriculture are not very numerous, but they can be considerably increased by simple irrigation works and the formation of small reservoirs. European colonists would be quite able to grow enough field and garden produce for their own requirements, and those in the most favourable situations would have a surplus for sale. The principal occupation of future European colonists must, however, be cattle-breeding.

Northern
districts.

In the northern portion of the Protectorate, especially in Ovamboland, the rainy season lasts longer, and the prospects of agriculture are therefore more favourable. Larger surfaces are capable of cultivation, and it will probably be possible to establish plantations of sugar, tobacco and cotton. This could not be done, however, until better means of communication with the coast have been established.

Opinions of Experts on the Economic value of the Protectorate.

In confirmation of the above statements the Memorandum proceeds to quote the opinions of a number of travellers and colonial experts. The most important of these is a report by Mr. Rogers, an engineer sent out to the Otavi district by the South-West African Company. He says: "The principal occupation of the natives is cattle-breeding. They have considerable herds, which are in good condition, but the extensive pasture lands of the district could support a far greater number, and the breed might be improved with advantage.

"The soil could be cultivated in many places but not over large surfaces. The area available could be greatly increased by irrigation works, which could easily be carried out, as the materials are everywhere at hand, and water reservoirs could often be protected from excessive evaporation by being placed near rocky cliffs."

In reporting on his journey from Otavi to the coast, Mr. Rogers says: "The Swakop is about 3 feet wide in the dry season, but the width of its bed varies from 100 feet to 300 feet, and once in each year this is covered with water. Beyond the Swakop the ground rises, until it reaches an altitude of 3,300 feet above the sea at Usakos.

"Once the barren coast plains are passed vegetation increases. The milk-bush, a sort of reed growing to a height of 8 feet to 10 feet, grows extensively, and good grass is also found. The natives state that after every rainy season this country is quite green, and that the Damaras keep a large number of cattle, sheep and goats on it. Although the soil is only a few feet deep, the natives grow vegetables and tobacco wherever water can be obtained.

"In the neighbourhood of Karabib there are good pastures. The Chiefs Manasse, Kamabazembe, and Maherero are said to own about 150,000 head of horned cattle.

"In Omaruru the natives grow maize, tobacco, vegetables and fruit, including grapes and figs, and in the bed of the river even wheat is grown. To the north of Omaruru the pastures improve, and European settlers who had a little capital could prosper there, growing tobacco, maize, wheat, rye, and even cotton.

"The Southern Valley, at the foot of the Otyorukaku Mountains, is one of the most fertile in the district, and here a very successful attempt at cultivation has been made by means of irrigation. Two kinds of tobacco, pumpkins and water melon are grown."

Herr Judt, a missionary who has taken especial interest in the question of the European colonisation of the South-West African Protectorate, and has planted a model garden at Hoachanas, expresses himself as follows:—"The Protectorate is better than its reputation. In many places cultivation will be possible; the want of water is not so great as is generally supposed. . . . European colonisation would have as good a chance of success in the Protectorate as in many parts of Australia or the Transvaal."

Mining Industry.

Gold and copper are the principal mineral products of practical importance. The former is found imbedded in hard rock, but the quantity is not sufficient to justify the establishment of expensive works, especially considering the scarcity of water. Whether gold can at some future time be obtained in paying quantities must be left an open question at present, until the country has been thoroughly prospected.

The numerous copper beds of the Protectorate are similar to those south of the Orange River. None have as yet been found, however, which offer any prospect of remunerative working.

Prospecting
operations
during the
past.

The Government is anxious to do all in its power to assist any persons who may wish to invest capital in mining operations in the Protectorate. The South-West African Company have shown the greatest activity during the past year, and have sent engineers to examine the deposits in the Otavi district, which promise to be of some importance. Sand containing gold was found by a German settler at the mouth of the Swakop; a specimen was sent to Berlin for examination, and although it did not prove very rich, it is thought worth while to make a further examination of the sand in the river bed.

Lead and
copper
deposits north
of Windhoek.

In July, 1893, a bed of copper and lead ores was discovered about 20 miles south-east of Windhoek. The report of the director of the Imperial Mining Board upon it is given at some length in the memorandum. The ore lies near the surface, and the lode is from 2 to 3 metres in thickness. The German Colonial Company for South-West Africa, in whose territory this discovery was made, has taken the necessary steps for its thorough examination.

Mining
ordinance of
September 6,
1892.

The native chiefs had been in the habit of granting mining concessions to different applicants for the same ground, and consequently the bonâ fide enterprisers often hesitated to invest their capital in mining work until the title had been made good. The ordinance of August 15, 1889, had established a mining board which acted as a court of 1st instance in such disputes, but they had no power to oblige all concerned to submit their claims for examination. The Imperial Ordinance of September 6, 1892, was intended to remedy this state of things. It gives the Imperial Commissioner power to issue a notification calling for a statement of claims to mining concessions in a particular district, and of dismissing those which are not brought forward in time.

Based upon this ordinance, a notification was issued calling for a statement of claims to mining rights in the territories of the Bondelzwarts, Veldschoendrager and of Zwartmodder, and nine concessions were examined on May 19, 1893, of which five were confirmed.

Trade.

It is difficult at present to determine the exact amount of exports and imports in the Protectorate, but as at least 90 per cent. of the trade of Walfisch Bay is really in transit to the German Protectorate, the returns issued by the Cape Government give some clue to it.

Imports.

In 1892 goods to the value of 24,000*l.* were imported into the Protectorate from Capetown via Walfisch Bay. The direct importation from Germany has increased, however, since a line of steamers has been started by the German Colonial Company. Three steamers sailed from Hamburg for Walfisch Bay and the mouth of the Swakop during the past year, and brought goods to

the value of 35,000*l.*, of which 20,000*l.* were on Government account. The port of Lüderitzbucht had no direct communication with Europe; the imports there from Capetown amounted to about 2,500*l.*

The principal trade routes with the Cape Colony and Bechuanaland lie over Warmbad, Keetmanshoop, Rietfontein, and Hoachanas. If it is considered that about 200 ox-waggons cross the land frontier every year, and that each waggon contains on an average goods to the value of 100*l.*, the total importation by land may be estimated at 20,000*l.* The total imports of the Protectorate for the past year would therefore amount, according to this estimate, to 61,500*l.*

The most important articles of import are hardware, clothing, cotton goods, tobacco, coffee, rice, waggons, and carts.

The principal article of export is live cattle, but neither the Exports, number nor the value can be accurately determined. Roughly speaking about 6,000 horned cattle and 10,000 sheep were exported to the Cape Colony during last year (the former averaging 5*l.* the latter 10*s.* in value), and this, together with the 500 head of cattle exported to the Congo, gives a total of 37,500*l.*

The other articles of export, such as ox-hides, goat-skins, and sheep-skins, gum arabic, ostrich feathers, ivory, and wool, were partly exported via Walfisch Bay and Lüderitzbucht, partly overland. They may have amounted to 15,000*l.* in value, and this would give 52,500*l.* as the total value of the exports for the past year.

Means of Communication.

The roads in the interior are in bad condition and but little Ox waggons, can be done for their improvement at present. It is proposed in horses, camels, future to employ criminal labour for this purpose. Ox waggons are the usual means of trade communication. They are drawn by 14 to 18 oxen and carry a load of up to 6,000 lbs. This is better than the porter system of Equatorial Africa, but is still a very slow and expensive means of conveyance. The freight of 1 cwt. of goods from Walfisch Bay to Windhoek amounts to 15*s.* to 1*l.*, and the journey takes a fortnight. Carts drawn by horses or mules are seldom used, and then only for passengers. It has been attempted to introduce camels, especially in the very dry districts, but they are not available for heavy loads, and it has not yet been found possible to teach the native drivers to treat the animals with the necessary care.

As the more valuable portions of the Protectorate are situated in the interior, the question of good communication with the coast is of the highest importance. The South-West African Company and the Kharaskhoma Syndicate have during the past year begun the surveys for a railway from Swakop mouth and Lüderitzbucht to the interior. Railway.

Communication by Sea.

Up to the present the Protectorate has been dependent for its communication with the mother country upon occasional steamers from Cape Town and from England.

By the efforts of the German Colonial Company, and their Chairman, Prince Hohenlohe-Langenburg, an improvement in this respect has been initiated. The Company now intends to despatch steamers at regular intervals, at first three in each year, direct to Walfisch Bay and the mouth of the Swakop. In connection with this service a sailing cutter will trade between Swakop and Lüderitzbucht. Official support has been promised to this undertaking, and all stores, materials, and passengers for the Administration or Constabulary (Schutztruppe) are to be sent by these steamers.

Landing-place at the Mouth of the Swakop.

Since the establishment of the Constabulary it has been found a great inconvenience that Walfisch Bay, the only port in the northern part of the Protectorate, belongs to England. With the assistance of the Imperial Navy a place has been found near the mouth of the Swakop where a landing can be effected by means of surf boats. A boat's crew of Croomen from Monrovia were brought down to do this service, but as they could not stand the cool climate they have been replaced by 11 German sailors, who also act as police and signalmen.

Before beginning any buildings or other work, however, the Government thought it wise to attempt to discharge a larger vessel on the spot. The transport, "Marie Woermann," accordingly discharged there, in 25 working hours, 135 passengers and 100 tons of merchandise and cattle, thereby proving that the landing place was practicable. The communications from this place to the interior are good, and it is the most suitable spot for the terminus of a railway, as there is no sand belt to traverse before reaching the firm ground of the interior, as in the case at Walfisch Bay.

*Population.**Natives.*

The two most numerous tribes in the Protectorate are the Hereros and the Ovambos. Hottentots, Damaras, and Bushmen are found in isolated settlements, but in small numbers. The native population is so thinly distributed that they do not occupy more than one-fifteenth of the available land of the Protectorate. As, however, they are nomadic in their mode of life, there is hardly any district to which one or other of the tribes do not lay claim. Most of the natives live by cattle breeding; only a few by agriculture. The Damaras and Bushmen are hunters, but the

former are willing to enter the service of Europeans for a small wage, and can be trained to be proficient labourers.

The European population is steadily increasing by immigration Europeans. from Germany and South Africa. At present they number about 1,150, including 310 men of the Constabulary and seven Government officials. Most of the Europeans have settled near Windhoek, where they can find protection from the depredations of the natives.

Several buildings, both public and private, have been constructed at Windhoek during the year, and the demand for building plots is increasing.

Besides Windhoek, the principal European settlements are Otavi, in Hereroland; Omaruru and Otyimbingue, in the territory of the Bastards; Rehoboth, in Great Namaqualand; Bersaba, Keetmanshoop, Bethania, and Warmbad.

Apart from Government officials and missionaries, most of the Europeans are cattle breeders and traders, with a few artisans, engineers, and miners. According to nationalities, the strongest contingents are the German (710), and the English (290).

The country is capable of maintaining a considerable number Immigration of Europeans and Boers. of European colonists, especially if they have a little capital to start with. Of 42 time-expired men of the Constabulary, no less than 32 have settled in the Protectorate during the past year. There is also a strong movement of Boers into the Protectorate, and the Government sees no reason to oppose this as long as they do not come in solid bodies or form independent political communities.

Land Tenure.

The natives lay claim to far more land than they actually Native reserves. occupy, and it may be doubted whether the idea of property in the soil applies to them at all. It has been decided, therefore, that the native tribes, as long as they are quiet and obedient, shall be guaranteed the land they are actually upon, which will be formed into so-called "native reserves," and care will be taken that these are sufficiently large for their maintenance. In the interest of the natives it is also decreed that they may not sell or rent any portion of their land to Europeans without the consent of the Administration.

When these reserves have been delimited the Government Crown lands. will declare the remainder of the territory to be Crown land, and will dispose of it by sale or lease, either to the large colonial companies or to individual settlers. For the latter purpose farms of from 2,500 acres to 25,000 acres will be marked off, of which a certain number will be publicly sold or let each year. Building sites in the principal centres will be similarly dealt with. That a considerable revenue may be expected from this source is proved by the fact that 750*l.* was paid to the Government during the past year for building sites in Windhoek alone.

Law of real
property.

It is proposed to introduce a special law for the regulation of real property in the Protectorate. The enforcement of the Prussian law in this matter had to be relinquished, partly because it was unsuited to the primitive conditions of the country, and also because of the want of proper officials to carry it out.

Ordinance of
April 2, 1893.

Meanwhile an Imperial Ordinance was issued on April 2 last, instituting a system of public notification for the settlement of land claims. A notification was accordingly issued on September 1 last, calling for a statement of all claims to land in the districts of the Bondelzwards, Veldschoendrager, and in Keetmanshoop.

Colonial Company for South-West Africa.

In their report for the current year this company state that their property in South-West Africa is suitable for cattle breeding and mining industry, but that as regards the latter they do not possess sufficient capital to develop it. They have therefore made agreements with an engineer named P. Scheidweiler, with the Hanseatic Land, Mining and Trading Company for German South-West Africa, and with the Kharaskhoma Exploring and Prospecting Syndicate, Limited, for the transfer to these latter enterprises of some of their mining rights.

Experimental Station for Agriculture at Kubub.

With the assistance of a Government subsidy, Mr. Hermann has established an experimental sheep farm at Kubub. It has been proved at this establishment that Merino sheep and Angora goats can be bred with a profit. The live stock of this farm consisted on January 1, 1893, of 2,343 Merino sheep, 246 Angora goats, 204 head of cattle, 95 fat tail sheep, 70 native goats and 26 horses. Each sheep gave on an average $5\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of wool in the yolk, which was sold at Cape Town at 4d. to $4\frac{1}{2}$ per lb. The cost of transport amounted to $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb., so that the net income was 1s. 7d. to 1s. 10d. for each sheep. Up to October 1, 1892, Hermann had sent 6,137 lbs. of wool to Cape Town. In connection with the German Colonial Company for South-West Africa, Hermann has rented from the Chief of Bethania a stretch of land near Nomtsas, which is capable of supporting 100,000 sheep.

Syndicate for the Colonisation of South-West Africa.

During the past year a syndicate was formed under the auspices of the German Colonial Company, the object of which is to send German settlers to South-West Africa, and to prove thereby that the country is capable of European colonisation. A considerable extent of territory in the neighbourhood of Windhoek (and therefore within reach of the Constabulary) has been placed at their disposal, and they have divided it into single farms

of about 5,000 acres each, and into village communities of about 15,000 acres each. Up to the date of this report 25 independent settlers—11 of them with families (55 persons in all), have been sent out by the syndicate. Five Germans from the Cape Colony and 18 time-expired men of the Constabulary have also settled on the syndicate's land.

Count Pfeil undertook a journey into the Cape Colony in the interests of the syndicate, with a view to obtaining German or Boer colonists from there. The Boers sent a Commission to Windhoek to inspect the land, who reported favourably upon it, but Major von François raised objections to the settlement of Boers near Windhoek, partly because he wished to reserve the territory for German colonisation, and also because he was afraid of the effect of a Boer trek upon the native population.

South-West Africa Company.

In fulfilment of their obligations under the Damaraland Concession, the above company have sent two expeditions to the Protectorate, one to take surveys for a railway from the coast to the Otavi District, the other to investigate the mineral resources of their territory. The expeditions consisted in all of 2 railway engineers, 2 mining engineers, and 15 miners, and arrived at Wal-fisch Bay on October 20, 1892. Thence they proceeded to Otavi via Omaruru.

The railway survey expedition returned in April last, and its leader, Mr. Angus, reports favourably upon the scheme. The line would be about 300 miles long, and with a gauge of 3 feet 6 inches, which is customary in South Africa, would cost 3,000*l.* per mile.

The prospecting expedition under Mr. Matthew Rogers examined the mineral deposits within a radius of 60 to 70 miles round Otavi. The results of the expedition may be summed up as follows:—The territory mostly consists of hard crystalline limestone. It is generally covered with earth and vegetation, which renders a mineralogical examination of the country difficult, and especially so to determine whether any of the deposits of ore are sufficiently extensive to be worth working. In the deposits at Otavi No. 2 and Soomep rich copper and lead ores were found, and in many places there was a notable percentage of silver. The copper lode at Otavi is said to be 14 feet thick. The proofs give 31 per cent. to 38 per cent. of copper and 13 ounces to 15 ounces of silver to the ton. If the lode proves of sufficient extent it will be very valuable.

Kharashkoma Exploring and Prospecting Company, Limited.

In the year 1889 this syndicate gave notice of their intention to obtain land and mining concessions from the native chiefs in Southern Namaqualand, and asked what position the Imperial

Government intended to take up with regard to such concessions. They were informed that when the Protectorate was extended over the districts in question, rights previously secured would meet with equitable consideration. The syndicate then obtained extensive concessions from the tribes of the Bondelzwarts, Veldschoendragers and from Zwartmodder. These concessions could not be recognised to their full extent, as the economic future of the district would thereby have been placed exclusively in the hands of a private company. With regard, however, to the above-mentioned promise, and in consideration of the services rendered by the syndicate in opening up the southern districts, the Government has recognised as many of the land concessions of the syndicate as it thought itself justified in doing.

In return for this recognition the syndicate have undertaken the improvement of the landing station at Lüderitzbucht, and the construction of a railway thence to the interior. By arrangement with the German Colonial Company the syndicate has obtained the cession by the former of such land in their possession as is necessary for the railway and landing station.

With regard to the mining concessions of the syndicate, the Government was bound by the provisions of the Imperial Mining Ordinance, which referred all such matters to the jurisdiction of the Mining Board of the Protectorate. The Government could therefore only recognise the mining concessions of the syndicate provisionally, subject to the final decision of the Mining Board.

Hanseatic Land, Mining, and Trading Company for German South-West Africa.

This company was formed at Hamburg during last summer. It has a capital of 10,000*l.*, of which one-half has been paid up, and it has acquired the concessions for mining rights in the country of the Bastards of Rehoboth and in the Khanas territory which were originally conferred on L. von Lilienthal. The new company has sent out an expert to examine the scene of their future activity.

German Colonial Company.

This association is not a Company working for profit, but it has nevertheless done a great deal during the past year for the development of the Protectorate.

It has shown special activity in initiating direct steamer communication between Germany and South-West Africa, by assisting in the attempts at colonisation, by experiments in improving the breed of cattle, and by sending out a competent veterinary surgeon to study the local forms of cattle disease.

Administration and Jurisdiction.

The actual administration of the country is at present only carried on in Hereroland and the territory of the Bastards. The post of Imperial Commissioner is not filled up, its functions are exercised by Major von François, the Commander of the Constabulary. The Administration regulates: the importation of arms, ammunition and spirits; shooting licenses, and the isolation of cases of cattle disease. The police work of Great and Little Windhoek is done by an officer of the Constabulary.

The following are the most important ordinances issued by the Administration during the past year:—

On March 18, 1893, an ordinance made the written permission of the Imperial Commissioner requisite for the importation of any spirits into the Protectorate. It instituted a license fee for the sale of beer, wines or spirits. The minimum license fee is 15*l.* per annum, but it is regulated by the amount sold, approximately at the rate of 12*s.* per hectoliter of spirit of 50°.

On the 1st of August, 1893, an ordinance was issued stating that the English sovereign would not be accepted at public offices for more than 20 marks, nor the shilling for more than 1 mark. This was done because a supply of coin (200,000 marks in silver and 1,000 marks in nickel) had been specially imported to avoid constantly drawing bills on Cape Town.

The business of the law court was not extensive. In the course of the year 14 civil and 7 criminal cases were dealt with.

There at present exists only one postal agency, at Windhoek. From September 21, 1892, to August 31, 1893, 6,307 letters and 4,717 printed papers passed through it. Since the beginning of this year a parcel post service has also been instituted. The parcels are taken to the coast on camels.

Two Missions are established in the Protectorate, the Rhenish and the Finnish Mission. The number of missionaries has during the past year been increased by 3, of whom 2 have established themselves in Hereroland and 1 in Namaqualand.

The Constabulary (Schutztruppe) consists, besides the commanding officer and his deputy, Lieutenant von François, of 6 officers, 1 sanitary officer, and about 340 men. The petty officers and men are all recruited from the active list of the German army, the privates being exclusively taken from the third year. Only men of good conduct and ability are accepted, and those of light weight and with some knowledge of riding and the treatment of horses are preferred.

The Constabulary formerly numbered only 50 men, and the great increase was due to the necessity for military operations against the Chief Hendrik Witbooi.

The Memorandum concludes with a detailed statement of the events which led to the expedition against Witbooi, an account of the storming of his stronghold, Horneranz, and an explanation of the present military position in the Protectorate as against this rebel.

GERMAN EAST AFRICAN PROTECTORATE.

Political Situation.

Coast districts. The influence of the German Administration is making satisfactory progress from the coast towns into the interior. In April last an expedition was undertaken by the Commander of the Imperial Constabulary (Schutztruppe), Baron v. Manteuffel, into the northern districts of Usambara, Useguha and Nguru, and this expedition was well received by the native population, which had been favourably disposed towards German rule by the influence of the Roman Catholic Missions at Mandera and Mkonda.

Ugogo and Wahehe districts. In the south-western portion of the Protectorate much trouble has been experienced by the constant inroads of the warlike Wahehe, Mahenge, and Wagwangwara-Mafiti. They have been very successfully combated, however, especially by the establishment of a station at Mpwapwa, and it is now possible to guard the caravan route to the lake districts much more effectually than heretofore. In the conflicts with the Wahehe two European officers, Lieutenants Brüning and Fliessbach, were killed.

In January and February of this year the Governor, Baron v. Schele made a journey of inspection to these districts. He considers the Mpwapwa-Kisaki line of stations the proper mode of defence against the incursions of the Wahehe. Colonel v. Schele spoke highly of the conduct of the troops and the military organisation of the stations, but found them poorly provided with material comforts.

It will be necessary, for the effectual protection of the caravan routes, to punish the Mafiti tribes in an exemplary manner for their repeated raids. But this can only be contemplated when the situation in other parts of the Protectorate will admit of a concentration of troops to one particular district.

Tabora. In Tabora, an important meeting point of the caravan routes for Lakes Victoria and Tanganyika, matters had long been in a most unsatisfactory condition, owing to the open enmity of the Sultan Sikke, who was supported by the Arab traders. He was defeated by Lieutenant Prince in December of last year, and by his annihilation peace has been assured to these trade routes for many years to come.

Victoria-Nyanza. The situation on the Victoria-Nyanza has remained unchanged. Except for the punishment by Herr Hermann, the Chief of the Bukoba Station, of a tribe to the west of the lake for its aggressive attitude towards the Catholic Mission, peace has not been disturbed. Preparations have been made for the further extension of German influence towards Lake Tanganyika.

The Kilima-Njaro district. Since the defeat of Baron v. Bülow by Meli, the Chief of Moschi, the latter and two other Chiefs, Fumba and Kitongati,

had been in revolt. They were reduced to subjection by Baron v. Schele in July and August of this year with a force of five companies, including 23 Europeans and 566 coloured soldiers. Peace has thereby been completely restored in the Kilima-Njaro district.

The delimitation of the boundary between the British and German spheres of influence was carried out by Dr. Peters and Consul Smith—at first on the spot, then in Berlin—and led to the conclusion of an agreement regulating in a manner satisfactory to both parties, the frontier from the Indian Ocean to the northern side of Mount Kilima-Njaro.

The Imperial Constabulary (Schutztruppe) has lost the services of the Zulu soldiers engaged on a three years' contract in Mozambique, who have now returned to their homes. To replace them, and to fill other vacancies, 400 Soudanese have been enlisted in Egypt and Massowah, so that the force, including the police, now again numbers 1,800. The European portion of the force consists of 1 commander-in-chief, 12 captains, 24 lieutenants, and 50 non-commissioned officers. There are also 13 surgeons, 20 assistant-paymasters, 22 hospital attendants, 1 pyrotechnist, 1 chief, and 2 assistant gunsmiths. On the staff there are also 1 administrator (Intendant), 1 surgeon-major, 2 adjutants, 1 officer employed for conducting the affairs of the force in Berlin, 1 paymaster, and 5 clerks.

In recent years attempts have been made to enlist natives from the interior of the Protectorate and train them as soldiers. These attempts have been attended with some success, and it is hoped that soldiers of the Manyema tribe may in future be made to replace the Soudanese.

The German East African Railway Company (Usambara Line).

This company holds a concession for a line from Tanga to Korogwe, and has commenced the preliminary works for its construction. The building of the portion at present in hand, from Tanga to Malinga and Muhesa, has been entrusted to Herr Bernhard, an employé of the Prussian State Railways, and a part of the materials and rolling stock has already arrived at Tanga. The line up to Muhesa (42 kiloms. from Tanga) is to be open to traffic by July 1, 1896.

Posts and Telegraph.

No material extension of the postal communications with the interior has been effected since last year. This can only be gradually done, as the increased requirements of the Protectorate appear to demand it. An increase in telegraphic communications is urgently needed, both in the interests of commerce and of public security. There exist at present:—(1) A submarine cable

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from Zanzibar to Dar-es-Salaam and Bagamoyo; (2) overland telegraph lines in the northern portion of the Protectorate from Dar-es-Salaam to Sadani, Pangani, and Tanga. The construction of a telegraph line in the southern portion of the Protectorate, from Dar-es-Salaam to Mohoro and Kilwa is in contemplation, and three experts entrusted with this work were sent to East Africa in July last.

Currency.

The Indian rupee currency was already in use in East Africa before the establishment of the German Protectorate, and although there are many objections to it, no other currency can be substituted until it is possible to diminish Indian influence in commercial affairs on the coast. The coining of the necessary additions to this currency has been granted by treaty to the German East African Company, and they have issued during the years 1890-93, 708,000 silver rupees, and 31,000,000 copper pesas.

An attempt was made in 1892 to curtail the importation of foreign coins by levying a duty upon them, but this was found to reduce the currency to such an extent that it had to be suspended (as regards silver coins) in April, 1893. The copper pesas have depreciated in value (up to 9 per cent.) owing to the excessive coinage of a private company in Zanzibar. To remedy these evils a decree was issued by the Imperial Governor on January 17 of this year, prohibiting the importation of all copper coins except those of the German East African Company. The latter engaged to exchange any foreign coins actually in circulation for those of their own mint. The pesas of the British East African Company were excepted from this provision, as they had never been recognised in the German Protectorate. A later decree of September 20 last, prohibited the introduction and circulation of the rupees of the British East African Company (Mombasa rupee), on the ground that they are below value.

The recent action of the Indian Government with a view to raising the value of the rupee has not as yet had any appreciable effect in East Africa.

Exports and Imports.

As far as can be ascertained by the customs returns, the total imports and exports from the Protectorate in 1892 were approximately equal to those in 1891.

According to statistics issued by the Hamburg Chamber of Commerce, the importation from German East Africa to Hamburg amounted in 1891 to a value of 26,000*l.*, as against 8,000*l.* in the previous year. The total exportation from Hamburg amounted in the same period to 110,000*l.* in value, as against 8,000*l.* in the previous year. The trade of Hamburg with the Protectorate is

not, however, synonymous with the total trade between German East Africa and the mother country. Until quite recently, imports from the Protectorate did not enjoy the most favoured nation treatment, and consequently it turned to the account of the local merchants to send their goods to foreign ports, such as Marseilles, Naples, Lisbon, and Amsterdam, whence they could be imported at a lower rate. By a decision of the Bundesrath of June 2, 1893, most favoured nation treatment has been extended to all German colonies and Protectorates. It must also be remembered that the whole of the export trade of Zanzibar consists, with some trifling exceptions, of products derived from the German Protectorate.

Customs.

Since January 1, 1891, the collection of customs in German East Africa is carried out on account of the Imperial Government, and since July 1 of the same year by special Imperial customs officials. New customs regulations, drawn up by the local customs authorities and amended by the Colonial Council in Berlin, came into force on April 1 last. At the same time the Imperial Governor at Dar-es-Salaam pointed out the necessity for a revision of the harbour dues. The latter had been introduced in 1891, but had proved too high, and had materially impeded trade, especially as regards sailing vessels. The Imperial Governor found it necessary, therefore, to suspend these dues on May 13 last. A loss of revenue amounting to from 19,000 to 20,000 rupees is expected in consequence. To meet this deficiency the export duties on cabinet woods and coarse tobacco have been raised from $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to 10 per cent., and a new export duty of 5 per cent. has been imposed on syrup and molasses. On the other hand the export duties on earth-nuts and sesame have been reduced from $13\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to 2 per cent. With regard to import duties, the goods which are believed to be capable of bearing an increase of duty up to 10 per cent. are principally cotton stuffs and glass beads, petroleum, tobacco, cigars, beer and wine. This increase in duties was intended in the first place to cover the deficiency caused by the reduction of shipping dues, but its object was also to raise a greater contribution from the Protectorate towards the expenses of its administration. After careful consideration and consultation, however, it is feared that the present tariff has reached the limit of the paying capacity of the Protectorate for many years to come.

The Imperial Government have caused two customs cruisers to be built in Germany, for service on the coast of the Protectorate, in order more effectually to prevent smuggling and make an end to the last remnants of slave-trading.

The total customs receipts of the Protectorate amounted, in 1892, to 776,377 rupees 3 annas 1 pesa, as against 786,722 rupees 13 annas 1 pesa in 1891.

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Missions and Schools.

Five new mission stations have been established in German East Africa during the past year; one at Mount Kiedjo in Nyassaland by the Berlin Mission; two by the Evangelical Mission for German East Africa, of which one at Mtili in Usambara and one near Kiswawe in Usaramo. The Catholic Mission Society "du St. Esprit et du Sacré Cœur de Marie" has established a new station at Madessa not far from the older one at Mandora, and the Algerian Mission one near Bukoba on the western shore of Lake Victoria. The Leipzig Mission Society has taken over the Kilima-Njaro Station of the Church Missionary Society.

The Imperial Government has continued to give all possible support and protection to the missions. A customs credit of 60*l.* per year is granted to each society for goods required by the missions, and all articles intended for ecclesiastical purposes are admitted duty free.

The Prussian Government has also allowed three foreign Catholic Mission Societies to establish themselves in Prussia, with the object of training young men as missionaries for the German Protectorate.

The well-known Indian merchant Sewa Hadji has presented the Catholic Mission at Bagamoyo with a house for the purpose of opening a school and dispensary. More than 60 Indian children attend this school, which is conducted by Friar Oswald, with an Indian and a Suaheli assistant. Another considerable donation of Sewa Hadji's has made it possible to establish a school at Dar-es-Salaam, which is intended for the free secular education of children of the poorer native classes. At the end of last year a school was also opened at Tanga, in which Indian and Negro children have been very successfully taught in the German language. A number of adult Indian traders at Tanga have also expressed the wish to attend an evening school.

Trade.

The trade of German East Africa in 1892 showed a marked improvement as compared with the previous year. The published accounts of the German East African Company show a considerable profit, and other European companies and firms in the Protectorate also acknowledge an improvement in their affairs. The direct trade between the ports of German East Africa and Bombay has shown a steady development since the establishment of a regular service by the steamer "Safari" in May, 1892.

Ivory is still the most important article of export from the Protectorate. The exportation in 1892 was about equal to that of the previous year, and amounted to 16,544 tusks, of a total weight of 286,840½ lbs. avoirdupois.

The distribution among the various ports was as follows:—

Port.	Number of Tusks.	Weight.
		Lbs. avoird.
Tanga	134	1,876
Pangani	1,627	26,849
Sadani	1,891	24,097
Bagamoyo	10,366	200,548
Dar-es-Salaam	125	2,037
Kilwa	680	11,499
Lindi	1,055	14,826
Mikindani	366	5,106

The largest exporter of ivory in German East Africa is an Irishman named Stokes, who exported 20,000*l.* worth in 1892, and has as much again stored at his stations in the lake districts, which will shortly be brought to the coast.

The caravan traffic in the interior of the Protectorate has suffered considerable interruptions, especially in the districts of Unyamwesi and Ugogo, by the warlike undertakings of various tribes. At present peace has been restored, but it will nevertheless be necessary to maintain strong garrisons along the Tabora, Mpwapa, and Muhesa route, and to insert smaller fortified stations between those already in existence.

The fluctuations in the value of the rupee, and the unfair customs treatment of the colony by the mother country, have had a deterring influence upon the development of trade in the Protectorate. The latter grievance has now been removed, and it is hoped that a considerable improvement will result.

Plantations.

Favourable reports have come in during the past year from all the plantations in German East Africa. The coffee plantations on the high lands in Usambara have been especially successful. The German East African Company reports, with regard to their plantations at Derema and Nguelo, in the Hinterland of Tanga, that they now have 160,000 coffee trees in good condition, and soon hope to send samples to Europe. Experiments have also been made with tea, cocoa, and cardamon.

The company has also established a cotton plantation near Pangani, and produced in the two last years a crop of 9,200 lbs. of "Texas," and 600 lbs. of "Sea Island" cotton, which were declared of good quality in the German market. In September last this plantation had about 200 acres in cultivation. If the season is good they hope to bring at least 200 bales of cotton to market this year.

Cotton seed has also been distributed among the natives in

the neighbourhood of Pangani, in order to induce them to cultivate it on their own account.

At Muoa, the most northerly inlet of the German Coast, the East African Company have also established a cocoa-nut palm plantation. The total amount spent by the company during 1892-93 for plantation purposes was about 30,000*l*.

The German East African Plantation Company has a tobacco plantation at Lewa (on the way to Kilima-Njaro) from which they obtained last year a crop of 116 loads of 150 lbs. each. A good harvest is also expected this year.

On June 7 last a new Company, the Usambara Coffee Plantation Company, was formed in Berlin, and they have already commenced operations on suitable land beyond Tanga.

Another undertaking proposes to grow sugar in the Pangani Valley, and establish factories for its manipulation, with a view to exporting it to Zanzibar and India.

A former planter in Sumatra, Mr. John Schröder, has been taken into Government service as an expert to instruct the natives in the cultivation of profitable colonial products.

Certain districts on the Kilima-Njaro, and on the plateau of Northern Pare, have been examined and found suitable for European colonisation, but no steps have as yet been taken in this direction.

Slavery.

The authorities in German East Africa have acted with all possible promptitude and energy in the suppression of the slave trade, and with such success that of all the dhows captured on the East African Coast during the past year only one was found to be carrying slaves embarked in the German Protectorate. These came from Kilwa, and it transpired during the examination of the crew of the dhow that a further convoy of slaves was awaiting embarkation at Kikunia, not far from the mouth of the Rufiji. With the assistance of the cruiser "Schwalbe" the latter were also successfully liberated.

Major von Wissmann has also been very successful in combating slavery in the interior of the Protectorate, and has now taken up a steamer to be used for this purpose on Lake Nyassa. The situation in the interior with regard to the slave trade has improved materially during the last few years. The dispersion of the Arab colony at Masansa by Emin Pasha's expedition, the establishment of the German stations at Mwansa and Bukoba, and the occupation of Uganda by the British have all contributed towards this result.

Major von Wissmann also dealt a decisive blow to the slave traders in the Tanganyika districts by his victory over the Wawemba in July last. This tribe, with a fighting force of 5,000 men, had been devastating the whole country between Lakes Tanganyika and Nyassa, and had threatened the Catholic Mission Station at Kala on the Kalamba River.

Von Wissmann pointed out in his report, however, that more thoroughgoing measures would be necessary in order finally to suppress slave-raiding in the distant interior, and that it was especially important to save the fertile and well cultivated district between Lakes Hikwa and Tanganyika from depopulation and ruin. The Imperial Government intends to do as much as possible in this direction by the establishment of further stations on Lakes Nyassa and Tanganyika.

There still remains some difficulty with regard to providing for liberated slaves. The children are handed over to the Missions, which receive a Government capitation grant of 25s. for each child under 8 years of age. For adult slaves, whom the Missions refuse to take in, it is proposed to establish colonies in which they can maintain themselves by agriculture.

Scientific Exploration.

The most important work in this direction has been the publication of Dr. Stuhlmann's account of his travels with Emin Pasha, which was published by the assistance of a Government subsidy. Of private undertakings the most noteworthy are the travels of Dr. Baumann in the service of the German Anti-Slavery Society, the expedition of Dr. V. D. Borne to investigate the graphite deposits in 'Ukani and 'Usagara for the German East Africa Company, and the renewed expedition of Count von Götzen, a tried explorer, for the further exploration of the Lake districts.

The officers and officials of the Government of the Protectorate, and many of the educated Missionaries have also sent in good scientific material, so that the progress in the scientific exploration of German East Africa may be considered to have been very satisfactory during the past year.

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Nº. 269.

REPORTS ON SUBJECTS OF GENERAL AND
COMMERCIAL INTEREST.

G R E E C E.

REPORT ON THE
PROGRESS OF VARIOUS PUBLIC WORKS IN
GREECE.

*Issued during the Recess and Presented to both Houses of Parliament
by Command of Her Majesty.*

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GREECE.

PIRÆUS.

Acting-Consul Hill to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Piræus, December 10, 1892.

I HAVE the honour to enclose you a Report which I have drawn up relating to Public Works which are being carried on in this Consular District, which I venture to believe will be of public interest.

I have, &c.

(Signed) ARTHUR HILL.

Report on Public Works in Greece.

ABSTRACT of Contents.

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The Corinth Canal.

General Turr, who was associated with M. Lesseps in the Concession Suez Canal enterprise, obtained a concession by Royal decree, dated May 18, 1881, to cut a canal through the Isthmus of Corinth and succeeded in floating a company called the Société Internationale du Canal Maritime de Corinthe to undertake the work. The capital consisted of 30,000,000 gold fr. in 60,000 shares of 500 fr. each, and encouraged by the extraordinary success of the Suez Canal Company, and not as yet discouraged by any failure in Panama, the whole of the capital was subscribed.

Inauguration.

The inauguration of the works took place on March 27, 1882, and the works went on accompanied by lavish and apparently uncontrolled expenditure till the capital was absorbed, leaving the works in an unfinished state. The aid of the Comptoir d'Escompte was then called in, and under the patronage and with the assistance of this bank, who raised some 14,000,000 fr. more, the works went slowly on.

In March, 1889, the Comptoir d'Escompte, however, got into difficulties, and the works at the isthmus after much negotiation and many attempts to keep them on came to a standstill on July 31, 1889.

The original calculation of the excavation to be accomplished put the amount at about 11,500,000 cubic metres, and in the seven years the original company existed about 8,250,000 cubic metres were really excavated, leaving about 3,250,000 cubic metres still untouched. (This, however, on re-measurement was found to be nearer 3,100,000 cubic metres.)

As over two-thirds of the work was thus accomplished, it was obviously impossible to leave it unfinished, and negotiations were at once set on foot to form a new company to take over the concession from the old one.

The Société Hellénique du Canal de Corinthe was formed with a capital of 5,000,000 fr. gold in 10,000 shares of 500 fr. each, and 23,333,500 fr. gold in obligations of 500 fr. each (of which, however, 20,000,000 fr. only were issued), and this company took over the works in their unfinished state, and the concession with the rights and obligations of the old company.

The new company proposes to retain for itself from the gross receipts, firstly, all the working expenses; next, 5 per cent. of the profits to form a reserve capital; then, 6 per cent. interest on the 20,000,000 fr. obligations; then, 5 per cent. interest on the 5,000,000 fr. capital. 5 per cent. of what remains will go as fees to the directors, and then of the balance of profits, if any, the shareholders of the old company will take 75 per cent. and those of the new company 25 per cent.

When the shareholders in the new company receive, with the 5 per cent. noted above added to the 25 per cent. of the residue profits, a dividend equal to 8 per cent., then any balance is divided between the old shareholders and the new shareholders in the proportions of 90 per cent. to the old shareholders and 10 per cent. to the new shareholders.

The Société Hellénique du Canal de Corinthe made arrangements with a gentleman who had gained experience in sub-contracts in the Suez Canal, named Antonios Matsas, concluding with a contract which he handed over to the Société Générale d'Entreprises, a firm of which Mr. Matsas himself was the leading partner.

This firm undertook to construct the canal, signed a contract June 10, 1890, and commenced work September 10, 1890, with an obligation to have it finished on March 10, 1893, or pay a fine of 100,000 fr. in gold per month for any delay after that date.

In January last, however, a waterspout is supposed to have burst near Isthmia, and such torrents of rain flooded the canal works as to suspend all operations for some weeks, and on account of this the contractors have obtained two months' grace from the company, so that the actual date by which the works have now to be finished is May 10, 1893.

On November 1 last actually 2,720,000 cubic metres had been removed in 26 months, or a little more than 100,000 cubic metres per month, and only 380,000 cubic metres remained to be done, so that if the same rate of progress could be maintained, only $3\frac{1}{2}$ months more would be required which would put the date the excavation would be finished by as the middle or end of February.

But besides breakwaters, quays, and other works of construction at either end which have either been done or have yet to be done, there are many finishing works which cannot be completed so rapidly, and the contractors themselves state that the works will not be finished before the middle of April.

It is invidious to put an untrained opinion in opposition to the calculations and experience of the contractors, but I must state that the present aspect of the works does not encourage me to hope that the contractor's prophecies will be realised, and that a large steamer will go through on April 23, 1893, as they say will be the case.

The canal does not cross the isthmus in the narrowest spot, or even in the lowest, but the question of surface drainage has been chiefly considered in choosing the line of the cutting and the spot where there is the least chance of surface water finding its way into the canal has been chosen.

It has been found, however, that at most the identical course chosen by Nero has been followed, for, at a distance one from another of 46 metres for nearly the whole breadth of the isthmus, two parallel lines of wells have been found, allowing for, and apparently forming part of, an excavation 70 metres wide between them.

It would seem from this that the Romans, whether they were or not supplied with mechanical appliances as our modern contractors are, found it more convenient to attack the work in hand in very many points at once and so employ to advantage their wealth of forced labour.

A similar system to Nero's has been followed by Messrs. Matsas and Vlanghalis, the chief partners in the Société d'Entreprises: a tunnel up the centre of the canal has been driven and a line of rails laid, then wells or shafts are sunk into this tunnel, and into trucks on the railway under the wells the soil is easily shovelled. The wells are widened until they become a cutting, and the cutting widened up to the full width of the canal.

From 2,000 to 2,500 men have been at work on the canal now for years, of many nationalities and languages, kept together by gangers or headmen over each group. Each nation is kept to its

speciality: Armenians to shovel work and loading tip-wagons; Montenegrins to the pick; Italians to tunnelling, to work in wet places, and to masonry and stone-dressing. A curious circumstance, but at the same time one easily understood by residents in Greece, is the small proportion of Greeks proper, not over 10 per cent. to 15 per cent. of the workmen. The usual rate of pay has been from 30 lepta per hour to 50 lepta per hour, and in the summer months work has gone on for 10 hours per day.

Each man has a number assigned to him on entering the employment, and at fixed hours an overseer walks along the canal calling out the numbers and marking whether their owners are present or absent.

Hospital, &c.

2 per cent. of the workmen's pay has all along been deducted to support a hospital and provide medicines and medical attendance, the number in hospital at any one time ranging from 2 to 100 on the whole work.

In this work some 3 excavators, 13 engines, and 700 tip-wagons have been constantly employed, and one of the problems has been to get the rails so arranged that no block should occur and that trains of earth out or stone in were not standing idle, causing also an enforced idleness on the part of the navvies in the canal.

At either end a quantity of water has been met with, but the only spring which caused serious trouble has been one at the Isthmia end, which at one time produced 1,800 metres cube of water per hour. This has, however, now been brought under control, and with a pump at either end the canal is now kept dry.

Length.

The canal will be about 6 kiloms. in length, or, counting from the end of the breakwater at Isthmia (eastern end) to the end of the breakwater at Poseidon (western end), 6·300 kiloms. long. It will have a minimum breadth at the bottom of 21 metres, and at water level of 24·60 metres (in some places of 26 metres), and a minimum depth of 8 metres to the surface of the water.

Breadth.

The average breadth at the top of the cutting is 65 metres, and the cutting from the surface of the soil to the level of the sea is in its deepest point 80 metres.

It is proposed to make the canal $8\frac{1}{2}$ metres deep in the middle, although this will entail an extra cost of 50,000 fr., and as yet the question is not decided.

The cutting is principally through blue marl of a very solid kind, but there are also points where rocks have had to be blasted, and others where, owing to the shale, the sides have had to be built in and supported.

Running along the whole length of the canal, on each side there is a wall 10 metres high, or, including also the foundation, $11\frac{1}{2}$ metres high—say 2 metres to the level of the water, 8 metres in the water, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ metres foundation—and this wall ranges from $1\frac{1}{2}$ metres to $1\frac{3}{4}$ metres thick, having at the top on either side a pathway 2 metres wide.

Walls.

These walls have been one of the most serious items in the

undertaking; 200 masons have been at work for years in laying the stones, which over 300 others have dressed, and 130,000 cubic metres of solid masonry will have been constructed when the canal is opened, of which 92,000 cubic metres are already done.

A point which has attracted my attention is the sharp angle Sharp angles. at some parts of the cutting, and whilst the contractors think there is more safety in an almost upright facing, some opinions would consider the walls too upright. The batters, or slopes, vary from one-fifth to seven-tenths, but where the latter slope is adopted the sides are pitched or walled-in right up—in fact, 32,000 square metres of slopes are closely walled.

It is proposed ultimately to widen the parts of the canal Proposed widening. where the cutting is not so deep, say, 1 kilom. at each end, and thus to have 4 kiloms. of $24\frac{1}{2}$ metres wide, and 2 kiloms. of double width.

The Piræus and Peloponnesus Railway crosses the canal near the Poseidon end, at a height above the sea level of 60 metres, on a bridge of French manufacture 100 metres in length by 9 metres wide. It rests on beds of conglomerate 10 metres thick, and cost 300,000 fr., of which the Canal Company paid two-thirds and the Greek Government one-third.

At either end long curved breakwaters have been constructed Breakwater. to prevent as much as possible the silting action of the Gulf winds, which blow now on the Corinth side and now on the Saronic side almost without intermission.

In order to invite shipping to use the canal, and to facilitate traffic, the company have thought it necessary to improve the lighthouses at the approaches.

The company have approached the Greek Government on the Lighthouses. question, and have asked for 9 extra lighthouses, 6 on the Corinth side and 3 on the Saronic side.

Of the 6 lighthouses on the Corinth side 2 are actually commenced, viz., Melangani, and Psaronita, near Galaschidi.

The other four projected are:—Point Ango or Cape Nicolo, opposite Psaronita; Oxia, near Platæa; Skinari on Zante; and Marmaka on Ithaca.

In addition to these the present lights on Cape Papa, on Drapano, and on Mano will be made larger.

The three on the Saronic side are Cape Kokhi, Evaro (island), and Gaitharonissi, but this latter has been rendered unnecessary, as the Greek Government have already placed lights on St. George's Island and Flevas.

The canal itself will be lit by electricity, with two powerful Electric light. lights at each end and a row of small lights through its entire length.

It is proposed to utilise the 2-metre wide wall on each side, near the water's edge, by putting a railway on it, and so to pull steamers through instead of using tugs or their own motive power.

But these and many other questions are not yet settled, and amongst these is the one of dues.

Rates.	The idea of the original company was 1 fr. per ton from Adriatic ports, where the gain to Doro channel would be about 17 hours, and $\frac{1}{2}$ fr. per ton for ships coming from south of Spartivento, whose gain would only be 3 or 4 hours. Again reductions were proposed for Greek ships, but nothing is settled.
Cost of undertaking.	The canal when it is finished, as it undoubtedly will be next spring, though perhaps not on the day fixed originally, will have cost nearly 2,750,000 <i>l.</i> , and whether it will earn enough to pay working expenses and interest is a problem which will be solved in the future.

The drainage of Lake Copais in Bœotia.

Agriculture.	Notwithstanding the immense tracts of country left uncultivated in Greece from want of manual labour, and from the well-known habit of the Greeks to prefer a commercial and town life to a rural one (and in consequence of this, nearly every peasant brings up his son to be a lawyer or doctor, instead of following in his father's steps and tilling the soil), a French company obtained a concession in June, 1880, confirmed in 1881 from the Coumoundouros Government, to drain the Lake Copais in Northern Greece between Thebes and Livadia, and to bring under cultivation the land there covered with water and in a swampy state. This tract approximately measures $16\frac{1}{2}$ miles by $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and has an area of about 60,000 English acres.
A Company and its capital.	This company was called the "Compagnie Française pour le dessêchement et l'exploitation du lac Copais" with 15,000,000 fr. capital, afterwards reduced to 9,514,500 fr., and they commenced operations by the large expenditure for installation so characteristic of French works, creating establishments at Athens, Thebes, Moulki, Carditsa, Authedon, Livadia, &c.
Proposed plan.	The plan proposed was to cut a tunnel to take off the waters from Lake Copais to Lake Likeri; and then another tunnel from Lake Likeri to Lake Paralimni, but this was abandoned and a cutting at Moriki was substituted; and from Lake Paralimni through another tunnel into the sea above Chalcis, in the channel of Atalanta between Eubœa and the mainland.
Downfall.	From the Copais to the sea there was a fall of over 150 feet, and the French company, after piercing these tunnels, cut the dam which had held back the lake waters with great ceremony on June 6, 1886, and drained the waters off from Lake Copais to Lake Likeri in 49 days.
Lake Copais Company.	But the French company, after paying dividends for three years out of capital, was wound up, and the works were bought in October, 1887, by an English company called the "Lake Copais Company, Limited," with offices in London, Athens, and Thebes, for 500,000 <i>l.</i> in shares of the new company, and they took over the works from the French company on January 1, 1888.
	The English company has a nominal value of 1,000,000 <i>l.</i> , of which rather more than half is subscribed, and in addition 200,000 <i>l.</i> of debenture stock has been issued.

The Lake Copais Company found the works, as regards the lake itself, almost untouched, and the services, firstly, of Mr. Henry Ree, and afterwards of Mr. Jas. C. Madeley, have been employed since 1888 in draining the lake. Now these are nearly finished, and one has only to examine them superficially to see what a colossal undertaking it has been.

The works in the bed of the lake itself consist of a series of canals not only to drain the lake itself, but also to intercept the river and rainwater and prevent its spreading again over the drained portion.

Firstly, there is the Emissary Canal $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile long, cut by the French, running directly into the tunnel. Then there is a main intercepting canal 22 miles long, with a maximum width of 90 yards, and this is really a channel cut along the south and west sides of the Copais for the diversion of all the rivers and streams that previously ran into the lake, and their conveyance into the Emissary Canal near the tunnel by which the waters are conveyed into the Lake Likéri.

There are two canals or channels made for the purpose of taking the rain waters that fall on the Copais itself. One of these follows a depression along the north side of the lake, and takes the waters of a large spring, which goes under the name of the River Melas, in addition to the rainwater, falling on that side of the lake. The other channel is cut along the lowest level of the bottom of the lake so that all the surface waters may be drained with it.

The accessory works connected with these canals and especially with the large intercepting canal are very numerous, and include the diversion and embanking of the rivers and streams running into it, the erection of numerous bridges for road crossings, syphons for irrigation, culverts with self-acting doors, to let the surface waters into the channels and to prevent the escape of water, where its level in the channels is higher than the surrounding country, and dams with openings for regulating the flow of the water.

The tunnel between Lake Copais and Lake Likéri is 630 metres long. Between Lake Likéri and Lake Paralimni there is a large cutting of 25 metres wide and about 1 kilom. in length.

From Paralimni to the sea there is a tunnel 864 metres long.

The surface water drain channels are 25 kiloms. and 26 kiloms. long, and run into the Emissary Canal at the same point that the great intercepting canal does, in fact it is the point of junction of these three channels that constitutes the commencement of the Emissary Canal.

The principal reason for the failure of the French company, and a great portion of the difficulties encountered by the English company, are owing to the general design adopted for the drainage of the lake.

In the original scheme it was proposed to store the water in Lake Likéri during the winter, and to use the water flowing

from it to Lake Paralimni, when required, for power to pump a certain quantity of water back to Lake Copais for irrigation, for cotton mills, &c.

It was found, however, extremely difficult to make the tunnel between Likéri and Paralimni, and besides this, it seemed very doubtful if Likéri would hold water owing to numerous kata-votheras in the surrounding hills.

Had this project not been entered into there would have been a great saving of labour and expense, as a tunnel could have easily been cut through at the north-east corner of the lake which is the natural drainage outlet of the Copais.

This would also have obviated the necessity of expropriating a large tract of land surrounding Lake Likéri and Lake Paralimni.

It should be mentioned that during the reign of Alexander the Great, a tunnel was commenced in the above district and all the shafts, 16 in number, would have served for the new tunnel.

All these works are now practically completed in spite of the difficulties that have been encountered, difficulties arising from the opposition of the peasants, from the impossibility of obtaining adequate labour during the summer months on account of the fever generated by the swampy bottom of the recently drained Copais, and from the flooding of the land where the works had to be carried out during the winter season by the rains and melting snow from the surrounding chain of mountains; floods which it is the object of the works in question to obviate in the future.

As the works have been gradually arriving at completion the time has been occupied by the company's agents to experiment how best to utilise the land thus acquired, but great obstacles have been met with chiefly owing to the inefficient help given by the Greek Governments of successive administrations to the company. The convention with the company is for 99 years from 1881, and provides that 3,750 acres are to be distributed *pro ratâ* to those peasants who can satisfactorily claim to have property within the area conceded.

Differences
with
peasantry.

At the end of the 99 years two-thirds, say 40,000 acres, go back to the Government, and one-third, say 20,000 acres, remains the property of the company.

The peasants, as they have seen the waters gradually receding, and the rich peaty soil of the Copais bottom becoming available for cultivation, have put forward continual claims, and have created difficulties which will, however, it is to be hoped, eventually be overcome, and an immense tract of land, second to none in the world in fertility, will have been brought under cultivation.

Mr. Steel, a Scotch farmer, has been brought out to make experiments as to what is most likely to produce a dividend, and either from the present well-known Moulki melons to the Livadia cotton, with beet-root for sugar, and wheat and Indian corn, it is anticipated that a good return will come to the shareholders.

It is, however, absolutely necessary that the law be respected, and what is ceded to the company by law be handed over to them in reality. Respect for law.

The Widening of the Euripos or Channel of Chalcis.

A contract was placed in May of 1890 by the Government of Contract.
M. Tricoupis with a Belgian company called the Société Internationale de Braine le Comte, to widen the channel of the Euripos between the island of Negroponte and the mainland at Chalcis.

The contract was made at a fixed price per cubic metre and was originally estimated to cost 1,100,000 drachmas, but owing to various difficulties and delays the estimates have risen to 1,400,000 drachmas. The ancient Venetian castle on the island in the strait was first pulled down, and much of the island has been cut away.

A channel will be eventually obtained on the Chalcis side of Channel.
this island of a minimum width of 40 metres and a minimum depth of $8\frac{1}{2}$ metres, and will be spanned by a swinging iron bridge now being constructed in Belgium.

This channel will be 40 metres to 50 metres long in its narrowest part, and from there will widen out rapidly on either side. The present depth is 5 metres to 6 metres, and the width only 20 metres.

The direction of the current through this channel now Current.
ordinarily changes four times in the 24 hours, and rushes through the narrow channel at an average speed of 5 miles per hour, consequently vessels have now to wait on either side until the current is favourable to them before they can pass.

But it is calculated with the increased depth and width that this cause of delay will be removed, and that even should the speed of the current, as it is expected, increase, vessels which do not draw over 8 metres of water will be able to pass in safety.

The charge for vessels to pass the straits is now as under, but it is supposed that an increased tariff will be put in force after the enlarging works are finished :—

				Amount.
				Dr. l.
For the tonnage up to 100 tons register	..	..		29 0
For each ton from 101 tons to 300 tons register	..	..		0 15
" " 301 tons and larger	..	..		0 10

The works were commenced in March, 1890, and good Commence-
progress was made until November of the same year when the ment.
works were paralysed until April, 1891, for want of funds. In April the works were resumed, and continued till September,

when owing to the failure of the Myli-Calamata Railway Company, which was connected with the Société Internationale, the progress ceased.

The works were handed over in March, 1892, to a new firm of contractors named Pelitmermier and Raspini, and they are making fair progress.

The foundations of the pivot of the swinging bridge on the Boeotian side are already finished, as also much of the masonry on the Euboean side.

Deepening.

The deepening of the channel at the southern outlet called Bourdgi was commenced on October 1 last, and will be finished in December. The excavator will then have to deepen the northern channel, but as the bottom is rocky there will be much blasting, and progress will be slow.

The whole enterprise will be finished, it is hoped, in 1893.

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COMMERCIAL INTEREST.

G R E E C E.

REPORT ON THE

NEW GREEK CUSTOMS LAW AND TARIFF.

*Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty,
MAY, 1893.*

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G R E E C E .

ATHENS.

Mr. Egerton to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Athens, March 31, 1893.

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith a short Report by Mr. Elliot, enclosing translations which he has prepared of the new Greek Customs Law and Tariff, together with a list of foreign gold coins lately declared by Royal Decree to be legal tender in Greece.

I have, &c.
(Signed) | EDWIN H. EGERTON.

Report on the New Customs Law and Tariff of Greece.

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New Customs Law.

On January 1-13, 1893, a new customs law and tariff came into force in Greece. Translations of both are enclosed herewith. The clauses in which the new law differs from the old are pointed out in notes to the translation, but it may be useful to offer here the following further remarks about some of them.

In Art. 2 a new clause gives a definition of general and conventional duties which was formerly contained in a note to the tariff. The conventional duties are those fixed by conventions of articles affected

with foreign States, and also duties, lower than the general duties, fixed by the new law, and applied to the produce of States which have conventions with Greece, or which apply their own minimum tariff to Greek produce. Upon one or other of these grounds all European States, except Spain and Roumania, are entitled to the benefits of the conventional tariff, although Great Britain, Germany, and France alone have conventions with Greece to which tariffs are annexed; the French convention being a provisional arrangement which, however, was prolonged for an indefinite period on December 16 last.

Extension of principle of maximum and minimum tariff.

The new law makes a considerable step towards establishing a maximum and minimum tariff in Greece, for there are now 48 classes or sub-classes in the tariff, against which a conventional duty is noted (apart from those entitled thereto by conventions, against some of which also a new maximum duty is inscribed), while in the old tariff there were not more than eight or nine classes.

Commission of Appeal.

In the same Article a change is made in the constitution of the commission which advises the Finance Minister in cases of an appeal to him from the decision of the customs, with regard to a disputed classification. The substitution of an Inspector of Finance for a Director of the Customs as a member of the commission appears to be a step tending to its impartiality.

Verification of destination of imports.

Art. 15 sanctions for the first time in the customs law the principle of an enquiry, which has apparently been practised for some time, into the utilisation of articles imported, for definite uses, free or at a reduced rate. The following are instances in which the intention with which the article is to be imported is explicitly stated in the tariff: Class 58*a*, dry pitch "for vineyards," is free; while under Class 58*b* pitch, liquid or dry, pays 5 dr. per 100 okes. Under Class 103*a* saltpetre, "for making gunpowder," is free. Under Class 206 yarn of wool, oil-dyed, "for making fez caps," is free; while under Class 175*c*, yarn of wool, "except for making fez caps," pays 540 dr. per 100 okes, both classes being governed by the German convention. It is within my knowledge that importers have attempted to assert their right to the free importation of yarn, similar to that used in the manufacture of fez caps, but destined for other purposes; but as the German convention explicitly restricts the freedom from duty to yarn for the manufacture of fez caps, the Greek Government appears to be entitled to insist upon this restriction.

Duties payable in gold.

Art. 26 renews the former enactment that the customs duties are payable in gold, but a fresh clause is added, providing that if payment be effected in forced currency the amounts payable are those given in the columns of the tariff under the heading of "duty in bank notes." It will be found that the addition to the nominal gold duties is calculated at 32.25 per cent. for the general tariff, and at 32 per cent. for the conventional tariff. There is no actual change in the allowance for the depreciation of paper in either case, but the terms of the law are altered. In my report for 1892 (Annual Series, No. 1112, pp. 10, 14), it was stated that by a law which took effect on February 1, 1892, an addition of 15

Alternative rate for payments in paper.

per cent. was made to the import duties of the tariff of 1890, with the exception of articles to which the conventional tariff applies, and one or two other classes. It was further stated that for payment of customs duties on imports classed under the conventional tariff, the agio on gold had been subsequently fixed at 32 per cent., and that for articles classed under the general tariff it remained at 15 per cent. as before; this 15 per cent. on the duty already increased by 15 per cent. making a total addition of 32.25 per cent. Both the laws introducing these changes are among those repealed by Art. 30 of the present law, and the normal duties, both in gold and in paper currency, can now be seen at a glance in the columns of the tariff.

Among other laws repealed by Art. 30 are those relating to ^{Traffic by} the traffic by way of the land frontier of Greece, and a new ^{land frontier.} system is established by Arts. 14^f and 27. The principle now introduced is that the tariff on imports by land is the same as that on imports by sea, with the restriction that no importation by land is permitted, except of such articles as are produced in the neighbouring countries. The quasi-insular position of Greece, and the difficulty of communications by land (so long as the connection with the European railway system is not made), make it possible to adopt this method of preventing the fraudulent introduction of other classes of commodities into the country by land.

New Tariff.

The new tariff shows for the first time the actual amount of duty leviable upon each class in the forced paper currency of the ^{New tariff:} country, whether under the general or conventional tariff, in ^{changes in} parallel columns with the nominal duty in gold. Another column ^{form.} shows the convention (if any) applicable to the class.

Another change that has been made is the substitution, in most cases, of 100 okes for 1 oke or 1 quintal as the unit on which duty is calculated.

I append a table showing the principal changes effected in the ^{Changes of} rates of duty as well as the value of the imports from Great ^{duties.} Britain, and of the total imports in 1891 of the classes affected. A glance at this table will show that British trade is not, on the whole, much interested in the classes of goods on which taxation has been increased. The following are the principal items:—

Coffee: Duty increased by 25 per cent.; British trade 3,650*l.* ^{Principal} out of 129,900*l.* ^{duties}

Oils: Duty increased by 50 per cent.; British trade 6,800*l.* ^{increased.} out of 10,600*l.*

Oil Colours and Varnishes: Duty increased by 66 per cent.; British trade (including boiled linseed oil, now transferred to Class 43), 15,400*l.* out of 26,500*l.*

Gunpowder: Duty increased by 50 per cent.; British trade 6,300*l.* out of 18,700*l.*

Certain Woollen Tissues (Class 184): No change in the duty on the lighter qualities; British trade 7,000*l.* out of 23,700*l.*: an increase of 60 per cent. in the duty on medium qualities; British (1498)

trade 18,000*l.* out of 24,900*l.*: and an increase of 66 per cent. on a part of the thicker qualities, while on another part there is a reduction of 33 per cent. in the duty. British trade was 49,400*l.* out of 89,000*l.*, but it is impossible, owing to the re-arrangement of this sub-class, to state in what proportion British goods will be favourably or unfavourably affected by the change.

Window Glass: Duty increased by 25 per cent.; British trade 1,700*l.* out of 10,100*l.*

Iron Pipes and Girders, T-iron, &c.: Duty raised 60 per cent. in the general tariff, but remaining still below the rate fixed by the German convention; British trade 14,600*l.* out of 28,900*l.*

The other most important changes (affecting British trade little or not at all) are the increase of the duty on cereals (except wheat) by 51 per cent.; the increase of the duty on wheat flour by 19·28 per cent.; of the duty on kerosene, paraffin, stearine, &c., by 20 per cent.; of the duty on hats by about 60 per cent.; and the increase, varying between 20 per cent. and 33 per cent., of the duty on umbrellas and parasols.

Apparent
reductions
due to
correction of
anomalies.

The reduction of the duty on Classes 19, wheat; 137, sugar; and 159*b*, certain cotton tissues; is only apparent. These three classes were specially exempted from the permanent addition of 15 per cent. made to the duties of the general tariff by the law of February 1, 1892 (see my report of 1892, Annual Series No. 1112, p. 10), and the duties paid on them in paper currency were only increased by 15 per cent., the fixed agio on gold. Since, however, the above-mentioned law has now been repealed, and the duties payable in paper have been calculated at 32·25 per cent. additional for the whole general tariff, the gold duties on these three classes have been reduced to the figure, an addition of 32·25 per cent. on which is equivalent to an addition of 15 per cent. on the old duties, and the actual duties payable in paper therefore remain unchanged.

Estimate of
increased
customs
revenue.

The effect of the changes in the tariff will be, according to the budget estimate, to produce an increase of 1,200,000 dr. (48,000*l.*) in the customs revenue.

Duties on Consumption.

Consumption
duties.

Besides the duties stated in the tariff, further Imperial duties on consumption, of which a table is appended, are levied on imports of tobacco, wine, beer, alcohol and spirituous liquors. They are payable in paper currency. The consumption duty on tobacco has been raised from 4 dr. to 5 dr. 20 l. per oke, and is levied on every class of tobacco, the exemption formerly enjoyed by tobacco in rolls for snuff (Class 40*d* of the tariff) having been withdrawn. The other consumption duties remain unchanged.

Foreign Gold Coins as Legal Tender.

Foreign gold
coins as legal
tender.

A Royal Decree, dated January 30/February 12, 1893, fixes the rate at which certain foreign gold coins are to be accepted, both by

the Treasury and by private persons. The rate is calculated on their nominal value in francs, with a deduction (as provided by the law of 1867) of $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. for cost of manufacture and wear and tear. A list of such coins is appended. Coins issued by States belonging to the Latin union are accepted at par.

(Signed) F. ELLIOT.

GREEK CUSTOMS TARIFF LAW (2121).

Translation.

(Of December 30, 1892/January 11, 1893.)

GEORGE I., King of the Greeks, In agreement with the vote of Our Parliament, We have decided and do Order:—

CHAPTER I.

Of Customs Duties in General.

Art. 1. Every commodity imported from abroad into the kingdom is liable to an import duty. General liability to import duty.

This duty has no connection with any duty on consumption which has been, or may be, imposed upon certain definite articles by special laws.

Art. 2. The duties upon commodities imported from abroad are determined in the tariff hereto annexed. Import duties determined by tariff.

* These duties are divided into "general" and "conventional." The general duties are applied to all commodities, whatsoever their origin, or whencesoever they proceed, if no conventional duty is shown in the tariff for such commodities. The conventional duties, which comprise duties included in conventions with foreign States and also duties, lower than the general duties, but not included in conventions, are applied to commodities imported from States to which Greece is bound by conventions granting this right to them, or to which it has been granted by Royal Decree in accordance with Art. 29 of this Law.* General and conventional.

An index, sanctioned by Royal Decree and annexed to the tariff, shall comprise the different kinds of commodities and the classification of each of them in the classes of the tariff according to the letter and the spirit of the tariff. This index may be modified by Royal Decree. Classification under tariff.

If there should arise a dispute between the importer and the customs authority with regard to the classification of a commodity, the final decision, from which there is no appeal, rests with the Minister of Finance, after consultation with a commission com- Settlement of disputes respecting classification.

* The clause between asterisks did not exist in the old law, but the substance of it was contained in a note to the tariff.

posed (1) of the judicial adviser, or of a legal adviser designated by him; (2) of the head of the Department of Mines and Monopolies, or, in default of him, of the mineralogist attached to the Ministry of Finance; and (3) of a financial inspector appointed by Royal Decree.†

* If the importer wishes to take delivery of the commodities, the classification of which is in dispute, the customs authority may deliver them upon taking satisfactory personal or material security on its own responsibility.*

Ad valorem
duties.

Art. 3. Articles which, after taking into consideration both the letter and the spirit of the tariff, cannot be referred by analogy to any of the classes of the tariff, are liable to a duty of 20 per cent. ad valorem on their market price in the place where they are imported, the import duty payable not being included in the said price.

Settlement of
disputes
respecting ad
valorem
duties.

Art. 4. In the event of dispute between the importer and the customs authority with regard to commodities taxed ad valorem, the question is decided by two experts, one designated by the customs authority and the other by the importer. In the event of their disagreement a final decision is given by a referee designated by the administrative authority, or in default by the "juge de paix."

Taxation of
mixed
materials.

Art. 5. Commodities consisting of, or compounded with, different materials or substances, and for which no special duty is fixed in the tariff, are liable to the duty on the predominant material or substance. Such commodities are, however, liable to the duty on the most heavily-taxed material or substance, when the combination involves an increase of more than 30 per cent. in the value of the commodity.

Duty on a
complete
article, or on
a part,
identical.

Art. 6. Pieces or parts of machines (liable to duty) and of other commodities, imported separately, are liable to the same duty as the commodity itself, unless a special duty is fixed for them in the tariff.

Possible
prohibition
by decree,
of imports:

Art. 7. A Royal Decree, issued on the proposition of the Ministerial Council, may prohibit the importation directly from abroad of commodities in general, or of certain definite articles only, even in places where existing customs regulations permit it, with the exception of custom-houses of the first and second class.

of transports.

A Royal Decree, similarly issued on the proposition of the Ministerial Council, may prohibit the embarkation, for the purpose of transfer to other ports of the kingdom, of any commodities whatsoever, with the exception of the ports where there exists a custom-house of the first or second class. This prohibition does not apply to native produce.

Possible
prohibition of
imports on
sanitary
grounds, &c.

Art. 8. A Royal Decree, issued on the proposition of the Ministers of the Interior and of Finance, may prohibit the

† Under the old law the third member of the Commission was the Director of the Athens custom-house; or, if the dispute was with his office, the Director of the Piræus custom-house.

* The clause between asterisks is new.

importation of plants or animals, or any other objects whatsoever, on the ground of the protection from infection or disease of the public health, agriculture, or cattle-breeding industry, under the penalties provided in the sanitary or other special laws in force.

Likewise a Royal Decree, issued on the proposition of the Ministers of the Interior and of Finance, shall establish the formalities requisite for the extrusion or destruction of commodities which may be in the customs or transit warehouses, and the decay or other alteration of which may be hurtful to the public health.

CHAPTER II.

Of Differential Duties.

Art. 9. A Royal Decree, issued on the proposition of the Ministerial Council, shall permit the imposition of supplementary duties, higher by 30 per cent. than the ordinary duties, on commodities and produce proceeding from States which tax Greek shipping or commodities or produce proceeding from Greece more heavily than those proceeding from other States. And upon those articles upon which, according to the tariff in force, no import duty is imposed, the said Royal Decree shall permit the imposition of a duty not exceeding 15 per cent. upon the market price, to be defined in accordance with Arts. 3 and 4 of the present law.

Differential
duties
permitted by
way of
retaliation.

CHAPTER III.

Of Customs Declarations.

Art. 10. Declarations deposited in accordance with the internal regulations of the customs organisation constitute a title in favour of the Treasury. If commodities are found to be less in number or liable to a lower duty than stated in the declaration the duty shall be paid in accordance with the declaration; but if they are found to be more in number or liable to a higher duty, there shall be paid double the amount of the import duty of which the Treasury would have been deprived if the difference had not been discovered. *The amount payable in addition to the duty due agreeably with the amount of the commodity as it is found to be, and the class to which it is referred, can in no case exceed 30 per cent. of that duty. Exception is made of cases defined in Sec. 6. of Art. 1 of the Law 1999, and liable to the penalties of smuggling.*

Customs
declarations.

An appeal to the Minister of Finance is only allowed when a dispute arises in regard to the classification, in which case the provisions of the fourth paragraph of Art. 2 are applicable.†

* The clause between asterisks is new.

† The old law also allowed an appeal to the Minister when the falsity of the declaration was obviously the result of clerical error.

When the declaration deposited is indefinite, either because the nature of the commodity is not accurately defined in it according to the tariff, or because its amount is not shown, the declaration shall be judged in accordance with Art. 25 of the customs organisation, and the depositor of the declaration shall be required to pay, in addition to the import duty, the due "on unknown amounts" of 20 per cent. on the duty, in accordance with Art. 4. of the Law 616 of 1877.

If any difference occurs between the two copies constituting the declaration, the copy in the hands of the customs authority shall be the one taken into consideration for the calculation of the duty and of the penalties possibly accruing.

And in either case the customs officer who has received the declaration shall be punished by a fine of from 25 dr. to 100 dr., Art. 25 of the regulations of the customs organisation being modified in this respect.

The Treasury retains unimpaired its rights as against the importer for all loss proceeding from insufficient encashment of the dues belonging to it.

Calculation of
fractions for
duty.

Art. 11. In the calculation of the import duty upon each article in a declaration sums of less than 5 lepta are reckoned as 5 lepta, and weights of less than 10 dramia as 10 dramia.

Calculation
of dates for
duty.

Art. 12. With respect to the duty applicable to imports regard shall be had to the day upon which the declaration was deposited; but if the commodity was not in the customs warehouses or on board a ship at anchor in the harbour on the day on which the declaration was deposited, or if through the negligence or fault of the person who deposited the declaration no beginning was made on that day of the operations consequent upon the declaration (in the customs or "entrepôt"), regard shall be had to the day of the operation in the customs or "entrepôt."

With respect to articles liable to any tax or duty on the occasion of their exportation or transfer, regard shall be had to the day of their shipment with respect to the duty in force and applicable upon the amount of them shipped on that day.

With respect to commodities confiscated and to those that proceed from a wreck, and to those abandoned and sold by direction of the customs authority, regard shall be had to the day of the sale.

CHAPTER IV.

Of Exceptions and Exemptions.

Exemptions
from import
duty.

Art. 13. Articles excepted according to the tariff, or, in virtue of special laws or conventions, are exempted from import duty.

The following are likewise exempted from import duty and from every tax or due imposed on articles imported from abroad:—

(a) Articles destined for the use of the King and the Royal Family.

(b) Articles belonging to Sovereigns, heads of Foreign Governments, and princes of reigning families, who arrive in our State for a temporary stay, or who pass through it, upon condition of reciprocity on the part of their Governments.

(c) Articles belonging to the heads of diplomatic missions accredited in Greece, under special regulations to be issued by the Minister of Finance, and upon condition of reciprocity on the part of their Governments.

(d) Articles destined for the use of foreign ships of war, whether they proceed from transshipment or out of the customs or transit warehouses, upon the receipt of the commanding officer, whose signature shall be certified by the chief of the port authorities of the place.

(e) Effects and furniture of first establishment belonging to the Consuls of foreign Governments in Greece, upon the same condition of reciprocity on the part of their Governments; this freedom from duty does not extend to articles of consumption, such as colonial produce, wine, spirituous liquors, prohibited articles or articles liable to a consumption tax, &c.

Art. 14. Are likewise exempted from import duty—

(a) Articles of clothing, for adornment or for the toilet, &c., serving for the use of travellers, passengers, and crews of vessels, provided they are destined for the exclusive use of their owners, and correspond in respect of quality and quantity with their needs, their resources, and other circumstances. The same exemption is accorded to the said articles, even if brought by another opportunity within a month from the arrival of the persons to whom they belong.

The method of the payment and collection of duties on articles imported by passengers from abroad through the principal custom-houses shall be regulated by Royal Decree.

(b) Offerings for churches, on the production of a certificate of the bishop or of his vicar-general.

(c) Articles imported for the service of the National University and of its dependencies, upon the written demand of the rector.

(d) Objects of art or science, destined for recognised artistic or scientific associations, by permission of the Minister of Finance previously obtained.

(e) Theatrical properties and costumes of actors and singers, exclusively suitable for scenic representations, when it is intended that they should be re-exported from the kingdom; the regulations concerning transit being applied to them, and security being given for the payment of the import duty in the event of their not being exported within 6 months.

(f) *Beasts of burden, viz., horses, mules, and asses imported by the land frontier, in so far as they serve as means of transport for travellers or commodities, or belong to drivers or workmen entering the country in the pursuit of their calling, are temporarily exempted from import duty, the regulations concerning transit being applied to them, and security being given for the payment

* The clauses between asterisks are new.

of the import duty in the event of the animals not being exported within 8 months from their importation through the same customs authority. This exemption extends under the same conditions and formalities to foals accompanying the beasts of burden.*

(g) Articles re-imported after exportation from the kingdom, if distinguishable by means of additional marks affixed to them by the customs authority at the time of their exportation.

(h) Re-imported natural produce of the country, the like of which is not produced abroad. This exemption from duty is extended also to other produce of the country, by special leave of the Minister of Finance, when their identity is incontestably proved by easily discernable external marks, or by proof that they have not been exposed for sale in the open market abroad, this proof being produced within a period of 15 days at the utmost from their re-importation into the kingdom.

(i) Articles imported by the judicial authorities for use as evidence. But when after the conclusion of the trial it is proposed that they should remain in the kingdom, they shall be sent by the judicial to the customs authority for the collection of the lawful import duty.

(j) Receptacles imported for packing national produce are regarded as in transit, and are delivered to the free use of the importer after that their identity has been previously assured by additional marks placed on them by the customs authority, and that satisfactory security has been given for their re-exportation within the term allowed for transit, which is fixed at 6 months† for places where there does not exist a transit warehouse.

(k) *Articles imported for repair or alteration by the special leave of the Minister of Finance under the same conditions as in Section j, and the same security for their re-exportation.*

(l) Articles imported for the use of the public service, as well as pipes imported by municipalities for the construction of water conduits, by the special leave of the Minister of Finance.

(m) Samples without commercial value. But when they have a value, as being capable of being utilised in commerce in whole or in part, their delivery from the custom-house shall be permitted under the restrictions of transit; after that the identity of each sample has been previously assured by an additional mark affixed by the customs authority, and that satisfactory security has been given for the payment of the import duty in the event of their not having been within three months exported from the kingdom in the same condition from the same port or from another port where importation is allowed.

(n) Articles sent from abroad as exhibits in exhibitions in the kingdom shall be delivered, by leave of the Ministry of Finance, previously obtained, to the Exhibition Commissions, upon the conditions of transit and upon the personal responsibility of the Commissions, assured by a written guarantee. This guarantee shall be annulled by the re-exportation of the exhibits in the same condition within 3 months from the official close of the

* The clauses between asterisks are new. † The old law said 3 months.

exhibition; otherwise the commissions shall be required to pay the import duties, quay dues, municipal and other taxes.

Exhibits sent from this country for similar purposes shall also be exempted from any tax whatsoever.

* Art. 15. An inquiry may be established by Royal Decree into the utilisation of articles imported, according to the tariff, or in virtue of the present law, or of special laws or conventions, free, or at a reduced duty for definite uses. Verification permitted of uses to which imports are destined.

Of these articles those which are not utilised for the purpose for which they were imported are liable to the import duty in force on the day of their importation.

The surreptitious introduction of these articles into general consumption, or their surreptitious utilisation for uses other than those defined as above, shall be considered and punished as smuggling, whether this smuggling be detected in the act or be otherwise proved.*

CHAPTER V.

Of Explosive Substances.

Art. 16. With respect to inflammable or explosive substances, such as gunpowder, dynamite, nitro-glycerine, explosive machines, percussion caps or cartridges, petroleum, &c., the importers are required to take care that the vessels or packages containing such substances should bear a legible inscription showing the contents, and captains and agents of steamship companies are required to make a special declaration of such vessels or packages to the proper customs authority before they are landed. Explosive and inflammable substances.

The customs authority is bound, upon such declaration, to take steps for their proper storage.

Art. 17. In default of a legible inscription the importer is liable to a fine of from 50 dr. to 1,000 dr. for every vessel or package, and in default of the declaration the captain or agent of the steamship company is liable to a similar fine. The steamship company owning the ship which brought the vessel or package is responsible for the fine. Penalties connected with explosives.

The decisions of the customs authority on this matter are subject to appeal in accordance with the provisions concerning the infraction of customs regulations.

These customs penalties do not exclude the application of those provided by the penal law in such cases.

When the inscription on the vessel or package and the special declaration of the captain or agent have been omitted, if the importer further omits to declare the contents accurately in the declaration deposited in view of delivery or warehousing, he shall be liable, besides the fine imposed by the customs authority, to imprisonment of from 5 days to 3 months, and the commodity shall, moreover, be confiscated.

* The article (15) between asterisks is new.

CHAPTER VI.

*Of Warehousing Dues.***Warehousing
dues.**

Art. 18. Commodities in the customs warehouses or within the precincts of the customs, whether they proceed from abroad or from this country, are liable to no due for 8 days from the day on which they were landed, inclusive.

After this period until the day when the declaration is made for the clearance, transit, or despatch of the goods, or, in the case of native goods, when they are taken over, a warehousing due levied of 1 l. per day and per vessel or package not exceeding 50 okes. If it exceeds this weight the due is doubled, or increased at the rate of 50 okes for each vessel or package; the same proportion being observed in the case of commodities not packed.

After the lapse of 15 days, reckoned from that on which the above due was first charged, the double of it is levied per day and per vessel or package.

Transit dues.

Art. 19. Commodities imported into the transit warehouses are liable to a transit due of $\frac{1}{4}$ l. per oke and per 3 months on their gross weight. This due is doubled in the case of the following cumbrous and light commodities:—Baskets of all kinds, cotton, cotton wool, empty casks, raw wool, hops, earthenware vessels, vallonea, hemp, cocoons, sieve-frames, dried fruits in the husk, toys and knick-knacks, carriages, hats, and packed furniture. By a Royal Decree, issued on the proposition of the Ministerial Council, other articles also, not explicitly named, may be brought into the category of light and cumbrous commodities.

The transit dues are collected at the time of the delivery of the goods or of their withdrawal from the customs or transit warehouses.

**Private
warehouses.**

Art. 20. No due is levied upon articles stored in private warehouses; but with respect to them also the provisions concerning importation in general and transit are maintained in force.

**Tranship-
ment.**

In like manner no due is levied upon commodities transhipped from ship to ship, the provisions respecting importation in general being applied with respect to the articles liable to import duty. When the commodity has been landed into the customs warehouses, and has remained in them more than eight days, it is liable to warehousing dues in accordance with Art. 18 of the present law. A declaration of transshipment is only required when, in the manifest presented at the first port entered, the destination of the commodity for another port is not explicitly shown.

CHAPTER VII.

*Of Municipal Taxes ("Octroi").***Octroi.**

Art. 21. The tax established in favour of the communes by the Law 68 of December 22, 1847, upon wares or commodities

imported from abroad or transported from other communes of the realm for local consumption cannot exceed 2 per cent. of their value.

The value of wares and commodities for the purposes of the preceding paragraph is fixed once for all for the whole kingdom by a Royal Decree, issued on the proposition of the Ministerial Council.

The value thus fixed can be modified in like manner by a Royal Decree, issued, on the proposition of the Ministerial Council, not later than October 31; but the collection of the municipal tax on the basis of the new value fixed shall begin on January 1 of the ensuing year.

If the value of any article has not been fixed the Minister of the Interior regulates it by his Order.

*Art. 22. If a dispute should arise between the importer and the collector or farmer of the municipal tax with respect to the classification of the commodity according to the municipal tariff, it is decided by the proper customs authority. An appeal against this decision may be made to the Minister of the Interior, whose decision is final, after consultation with the commission established by Art. 2.

Settlement
of disputes
respecting
octroi.

If the importer wishes to take delivery of the commodities, the classification of which is in dispute, the customs authority can deliver them, after previously receiving satisfactory personal or material security on its own responsibility.*

Art. 23. In accordance with a vote of the Municipal Council and with the Royal sanction, the Commune of Letrina is authorised to levy a tax, in accordance with Art. 21 above, upon cereals and flour brought for local consumption from the district of the custom-house of Catacolo.

Special
clause
applying to
Commune of
Letrina.

Art. 24. The provisions of the following† article are not applicable to the Municipal Tax.

CHAPTER VIII.

Of Tare.

Art. 25. Everything which relates to tare is in general regulated by Royal Decrees, issued on the proposition of the Minister of Finance.

Tare.

Receptacles of all kinds inclosing commodities free of duty or not, and capable of being utilised by themselves, shall be liable to the special import duties provided, unless according to the tariff or the Royal Decrees concerning tare they are taxable with the commodities contained in them. The receptacles not liable to any duty will be determined by Royal Decrees.

* The article (22) and clause between asterisks are new.

† Probably a clerical error, the reference being doubtless to Art. 26.—(Translator.)

CHAPTER IX.

General Provisions.

Duties payable in coin or in notes at rates shown in tariff.

Art. 26. The import duties inscribed in the tariff referred to in Art. 2 of the present law, and the duty fixed by Art. 3 of this law for articles taxable "ad valorem," are leviable in metallic money.

* If payment be effected by means of the Bank notes in forced circulation, the amounts to be paid are those inscribed in the columns of the tariff, under the heading, "Duty on Bank Notes."*

Importation by land frontier.

* Art. 27. The importation of the natural or industrial produce of neighbouring countries by the land frontier is permitted, subject to the observance of the provisions of the customs organisation.

The manifests, in accordance with Art. 39 of the customs organisation, shall be delivered to the frontier sanitary authorities.

Royal Decrees shall determine:—

(a) A zone along the frontier within which any smuggling that is detected shall be considered as detected in the act.

(b) The passes by which the commodities imported into this country shall be obliged to enter, as well as the roads which they shall be obliged to follow within the zone above mentioned.

(c) The products which shall be regarded as produced or not produced in the neighbouring countries.

(d) Everything relating to importation by land.*

Tariff changes applicable from date of presentation of Bill to that effect.

Art. 28. When a Bill concerning a modification of the customs tariff is laid before Parliament by the Minister of Finance, the new or increased duties proposed by it shall be collected immediately from the day on which the Bill was laid, provided that, and in so far as, it be so determined in the Bill itself. If, however, any modification of the Bill should supervene, the excess of duty collected in virtue of it shall be returned to the persons thereto entitled.

Application of conventional tariff by way of reciprocity.

Art. 29. It shall be lawful, by a Royal Decree issued on the proposition of the Ministerial Council, to apply the conventional tariff to articles proceeding from States which apply their own conventional tariff to articles proceeding from Greece.

Repeal of Laws.

Art. 30. The Law 1425 of 1887 concerning a customs tariff, and the tariff thereby sanctioned; the Laws 1607 of 1887 and 1657 of 1888; Art. 2 of the Law 1701 of 1882; the Laws 1762 of 1889, 1994, 2000, 2011, and 2057 of 1892, all regarding changes in the customs tariff; and the Laws 1139 of 1884, 1786 of 1889, and 1995 and 2066 of 1892, regarding the land frontier, as well as every other provision contrary to the present Law, are repealed.

CHAPTER X.

Temporary Provision.

Date of operation of new tariff.

Art. 31. The collection of duties in accordance with the tariff

* The clause and article (27) between asterisks are new.

annexed shall begin from January 1, 1893; and the collection already made of duties upon Class 33 of the tariff from November 24, 1892, conformably to the Bill presented on the 23rd of that month, and the continuance of their collection, are confirmed.

This Law shall have force from the day following its publication in the "Official Gazette."

The present Law, having been voted by Parliament and this day sanctioned by us, shall be promulgated through the "Official Gazette," and shall be enforced as a Law of the Realm.

(Signed) GEORGE.

The Minister of Finance,

(Signed) CH. TRICOUPIS.

Seen and Sealed with the Great Seal of the Realm.

The Minister of Justice,

(Signed) A. N. SIMOPOULOS.

Athens, December 30, 1892.

CATEGORIES of the Greek Customs Tariff.

Categories.	Description.
I.	Live animals.
II.	Animal products in general.
III.	Produce of fisheries.
IV.	Agricultural produce.
V.	Oils and oleaginous substances.
VI.	Produce of forests in general.
VII.	Vegetable dyes, and substances used in tanning.
VIII.	Raw minerals and metals.
IX.	Drugs and chemical produce.
X.	Hides and bones, manufactured.
XI.	Furniture and other wooden goods.
XII.	Produce of sugar industry, confectionery, &c.
XIII.	Wines and other liquors.
XIV.	Yarns and tissues.
XV.	Goods of esparto and hemp, fullers' and hatters' wares, baskets, &c.
XVI.	Pottery and glass.
XVII.	Minerals and metals, manufactured.
XVIII.	Musical and scientific instruments.
XIX.	Paper and artistic products.
XX.	Miscellaneous.

GREEK Customs Tariff.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
1	CATEGORY I.						
	a. Live animals, except the following	Head...	Free	18 00	Free	23 80	...
	b. Buffaloes, oxen, cows up to the weight of 140 okes	"	36 00	30 00	47 61	39 98	...
	c. "	"	60 00	40 00	79 35	52 90	...
	d. Calves up to the weight of 300 "	"	80 00	40 00	106 80	52 90	...
	e. Horses, mules, and their foals	"	24 00	12 00	31 74	15 87	...
	f. Ases and their foals	"	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	g. Swine in general	"	10 00	...	13 23	...	...
	h. Sucking pigs	"	2 50	...	3 31	...	...
	i. Sheep and goats without distinction of age	"	1 50	...	1 98	...	...
2	CATEGORY II.						
	<i>Animal Substances for Use as Food.</i>						
	a. Fresh meat of sucking animals or of birds in general	"	30 00	...	39 68	...	...
	b. Meat, salted, or in brine, or smoked	"	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	c. Smoked tongues, extracts of meat, plain or mixed with other animal substances; sausages and mortadillas in pieces or in tins; hams; preserved meats in large or small tins; as well as any animal substance prepared for consumption, not otherwise mentioned	"	200 00	...	264 50	...	...
	d. Cheese in general	"	150 00	...	199 33	...	...
	e. "Casu marzu" (cheese with holes)	"	40 00	...	52 90	...	...
	f. Butter, commonly called "toulounotiri"	"	60 00	...	79 35	...	...
	g. Butter, salted, for cooking purposes, and margarine	"	160 00	...	211 60	...	...
	h. Butter, fresh or half salted, for the table	"	...	...	...	...	...
3	CATEGORY III.						
	<i>Animal Substances for Use as Food.</i>						
	a. Fresh meat of sucking animals or of birds in general	"	30 00	...	39 68	...	...
	b. Meat, salted, or in brine, or smoked	"	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	c. Smoked tongues, extracts of meat, plain or mixed with other animal substances; sausages and mortadillas in pieces or in tins; hams; preserved meats in large or small tins; as well as any animal substance prepared for consumption, not otherwise mentioned	"	200 00	...	264 50	...	...
	d. Cheese in general	"	150 00	...	199 33	...	...
	e. "Casu marzu" (cheese with holes)	"	40 00	...	52 90	...	...
	f. Butter, commonly called "toulounotiri"	"	60 00	...	79 35	...	...
	g. Butter, salted, for cooking purposes, and margarine	"	160 00	...	211 60	...	...
	h. Butter, fresh or half salted, for the table	"	...	...	...	...	...
4	CATEGORY IV.						
	<i>Animal Substances for Use as Food.</i>						
	a. Fresh meat of sucking animals or of birds in general	"	30 00	...	39 68	...	...
	b. Meat, salted, or in brine, or smoked	"	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	c. Smoked tongues, extracts of meat, plain or mixed with other animal substances; sausages and mortadillas in pieces or in tins; hams; preserved meats in large or small tins; as well as any animal substance prepared for consumption, not otherwise mentioned	"	200 00	...	264 50	...	...
	d. Cheese in general	"	150 00	...	199 33	...	...
	e. "Casu marzu" (cheese with holes)	"	40 00	...	52 90	...	...
	f. Butter, commonly called "toulounotiri"	"	60 00	...	79 35	...	...
	g. Butter, salted, for cooking purposes, and margarine	"	160 00	...	211 60	...	...
	h. Butter, fresh or half salted, for the table	"	...	...	...	...	...
5	CATEGORY V.						
	<i>Animal Substances for Use as Food.</i>						
	a. Fresh meat of sucking animals or of birds in general	"	30 00	...	39 68	...	...
	b. Meat, salted, or in brine, or smoked	"	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	c. Smoked tongues, extracts of meat, plain or mixed with other animal substances; sausages and mortadillas in pieces or in tins; hams; preserved meats in large or small tins; as well as any animal substance prepared for consumption, not otherwise mentioned	"	200 00	...	264 50	...	...
	d. Cheese in general	"	150 00	...	199 33	...	...
	e. "Casu marzu" (cheese with holes)	"	40 00	...	52 90	...	...
	f. Butter, commonly called "toulounotiri"	"	60 00	...	79 35	...	...
	g. Butter, salted, for cooking purposes, and margarine	"	160 00	...	211 60	...	...
	h. Butter, fresh or half salted, for the table	"	...	...	...	...	...

NOTE.—Whole herds of sheep proceeding from the frontier districts, and according to custom, crossing the frontier between October 10 and November 20 of each year for the purpose of passing the winter, are exempted from import duty.

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

(1498.)

Number of Class Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
	<i>Various Animal Substances.</i>		Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	
6	a. Wool and hair of animals unprepared (that is to say, neither carded, bleached, nor washed); human hair, not worked; feathers for pens, toothpicks, and other uses; fawn's, badger's, beaver's, muskrat's, rabbit's, and other animals; cocoons; silkworms' eggs; pullet's eggs, and eggs of other animals; manure; and all other animal substances, not worked and not mentioned above or below; as well as all animal dyes	100 okes	Free	...	Free	...	...
	b. Hides, raw, dry, salted or not	...	10 00	...	18 28	...	...
	c. Hides, raw, moist, salted or not, and those with a coating of earth.	...	3 00	...	6 61	...	...
	d. Cochineal and kermes	Okc	3 00	...	3 00	...	...
7	a. Fat in general, and tallow candles	100 okes	40 00	...	62 50	...	...
8	b. Fat for shipbuilding purposes	...	20 00	...	28 46	...	...
9	c. Yellow beeswax, in cakes or pieces	...	70 00	...	92 58	...	...
	... in papers of every kind, or otherwise prepared	...	125 00	...	165 31	...	...
	<i>CATEGORY III.</i>						
10	Fresh fish (except such as are imported by the vessels which caught them, which are free from duty)	...	15 00	...	19 84	...	...
11	a. Fish, salted, or in brine, smoked, pickled, or sun-dried (except the following)	...	30 00	...	39 68	...	...
12	b. Herrings	...	30 00	20 00	39 68	26 40	British
13	Fishes called "Euxis;" sturgeons, mussels, shrimps, lobsters; tunny-fish in small tins, in barrels, &c., and all other kinds of fish in tins prepared for consumption.	...	200 00	...	264 50	...	...
14	c. Crabs, and smoked mullet	...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
15	Gutted-fish, octopuses, dried or otherwise prepared, eels, boiled shrimps, and prawns	...	50 00	...	66 12	...	...
16	Caviar, black, and "bopargue," with or without layer of wax.	...	300 00	...	396 75	...	...
17	d. red, of all kinds.	...	50 00	...	66 12	...	...
18	e. Oysters	...	50 00	...	66 12	...	...
	a. All other shell-fish, shells, zoophytes, and all other produce of fisheries, unprepared, not mentioned above	...	5 00	...	6 61	...	...
	b. Sponges in general	...	Free	...	Free	...	...

ATHENS.

17

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of weight or measure on which duty is charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
			Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	
CATEGORY IV.							
<i>Farinaceous substances.</i>							
19*	Wheat and mealin, in grain	100 okes	7 85	4 11	9 72	5 44	...
20	a. Other cereals, in grain	...	5 02	3 02	6 64	4 00	...
	b. Barley, roasted...	...	Free	...	Free	...	...
21	Flours:—	...	...	...	...	...	...
	a. Of wheat, with or without bran	...	11 96	6 50	15 80	8 60	...
	b. Of other cereals	...	8 77	4 77	11 60	6 31	...
22	a. Other farinaceous substances (sago, tapioca, arrowroot, mustard, salep in root or in powder, &c.), howsoever prepared	...	100 00	...	132 25	...	...
NOTE.—No allowance is made for tare for receptacles of paper, light wood, glass, or tin.							
23	b. Bran	...	3 00	...	3 97	...	...
24	Rice and chestnuts	...	15 00	...	19 84	...	...
25	Rice flour, chestnut flour, and pearl barley	...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
26	Potatoes in general	...	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
27	Pulse in general	...	24 00	12 00	31 74	15 87	...
	Truffles, pulse in thin and other edible roots, in vinegar or oil, or otherwise prepared and preserved in tin	...	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
<i>Medicinal and aromatic roots, plants, seeds, and fruits of common use.</i>							
28	Common cumin, coriander, fennel-seed, and common anise	100 okes	15 00	...	19 84	...	...
29	Cinnamon, cloves, black colonial pepper, red pepper, allspice, ginger, Indian anise...	...	70 00	...	92 58	...	...
30	Nutmeg	...	3 00	...	3 97	...	...
31	Vanilla	...	26 00	...	26 45	...	...
32	Tobacco	...	4 00	...	5 29	...	...

* The reduction of duty on this class is only apparent: the actual duty payable in paper remains unchanged.—(See p. 4.—Translator.)

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
33	<i>Medicinal and aromatic roots, etc.—continued.</i>						
	Coffee in general; chicory root, roasted and ground, or not; acorns, simply roasted or ground; figs, roasted and ground; and, in general, all vegetable substances roasted and ground; and coffee, ground and mixed with other substances	100 okes	100 00		132 25		
34	Cocoa, in powder, cakes, or tablets	Okes	3 00		3 97		
35	<i>Fruits.</i>						
36	Fruits, fresh, in general	100 okes	2 00		2 65		
37	" dry, with rind		20 00		26 45		
38	" with soft rind		40 00		52 90		
39	Pistachio nuts, with or without shell		30 00		39 68		
			50 00		66 13		
40	<i>Industrial plants.</i>						
	Tobacco—						
	a. Of whatever origin, in leaves		600 00		793 50		
	b. For the marghlich (tombek)		600 00		681 26		
	c. Cut		1,100 00		1,454 75		
	d. In rolls, for snuff		800 00		1,053 00		
	e. In cigars of all kinds		14 00		18 52		
41	<i>Divers other agricultural products.</i>						
	a. Cotton, not ginned; flax, raw; jute, raw; straw, white or coloured, and reed canes for making chairs; sugar cane; green vegetables; onions; other roots; fruit-trees and other trees; stalks of oleander and sage suitable for the manufacture of gunpowder; flowers; seeds of all kinds; cocoa in its natural state, or in beans; hops; and any other vegetable substance, not described above, and not belonging to the following sub-classes, or to the three following categories, V., VI., and VII.	100 okes	Free		Free		

GREECE.

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
	<i>Divers other agricultural products—continued.</i>		Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.		
42	b. Asphodel, in whole bulbs, or in powder ...	100 okeas ...	15 00	...	19 84	...	...
43	c. Hemp in general, raw... ..	" ...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	d. Esparto in general (except cortex of esparto) suitable for mattresses and upholstery ...	" ...	10 00	...	13 23	...	...
	e. Seeds of madder and colocynth ...	" ...	10 00	...	13 23	...	...
	CATEGORY V.						
	<i>Oils, edible, combustible, and for industrial uses.</i>						
44	Oils, edible, in bottles or other vessels, except barrels, skins, and the like ...	" ...	100 00	...	132 25	...	...
45	" of all other kinds, edible or not (except mineral, empyreumatic, aromatic, and medicinal oils), and boiled linseed oil... ..	" ...	30 00	...	39 68	...	...
46	<i>Edible oleaginous substances.</i>						
44	Oleives in general ...	" ...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
45	Sesame and pulp (bonille) of sesame; and other edible oleaginous substances ...	" ...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
46	Gallinole, edible... ..	" ...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
47	<i>Oleaginous Substances and Seeds for Industrial Uses.</i>						
	Oleaginous seeds (cotton seed, linseed, &c.), olive-kernels, and all oleaginous substances suitable for the extraction of oil ...	" ...	Free	...	Free	...	...
48	CATEGORY VI.						
	<i>Firewood.</i>						
a. Firewood ...	" ...	" ...	Free	...	Free	...	...
b. Charcoal... ..	" ...	" ...	1 50	...	1 98	...	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
49	<i>Wood for Shipbuilding.</i> All wood, unwrought and indisputably suitable for shipbuilding or repairing vessels	100 okes	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	German
			Dutiable as wood for building	Free	Dutiable as wood for building	Free	
50	<i>Wood for Building.</i> All wood for building, been or sawn, in the rough:— a. Of pine and fir b. Beams and planks of pine and fir c. Round trunks of pine and fir, with or without bark d. Of oak e. Of chestnut, elm, or other trees f. Pieces of boards prepared in any manner for making boxes for raisins, lemons, &c.	Cubic metres	13 50	10 00	17 85	13 23	...
			13 50	...	17 85	...	...
			8 00	...	10 08	...	...
			23 00	...	27 77	...	...
			19 00	...	23 13	...	...
			6 00	...	7 84	...	...
			...	...	...	...	...
			1 00	...	1 82	...	...
			1 00	...	1 82	...	...
			1 00	...	1 82	...	...
	<i>Cask and Stave Wood.</i> Hoops of all kinds and thicknesses Staves of all kinds of wood, and of whatever origin Beechwood in general	59	...	...	...	...	...
			...	...	...	...	...
	<i>Cabinetmakers' Wood.</i> Walnut, box, ebony, mahogany, &c., in boards or pieces of any dimensions, and of whatever origin, prepared for cabinetmakers work Cabinetmakers' wood in strips for veneering	59	6 00	...	7 94	...	...
			30 00	...	39 68	...	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
<i>Resinous and other Forest Products.</i>							
56	a. Cork in general	100 oles	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	...
57	b. Common corks without metal fittings	"	10 00	...	13 23	...	...
58	c. Common corks with metal fittings	"	20 00	...	23 43	...	...
	d. Common corks with metal fittings, suitable for vineyards, leaves of the mastic-bearing lentiscus, suitable for distilling purposes, amber in the rough, and tinner in pieces without phosphorus	"	150 00	...	193 83	...	...
	e. Pitch, liquid or dry (tar and "English black"); common resin, and colophane	"	Free	...	Free	...	...
	f. Oil of turpentine, turpentine, raw gums in general, and all other kinds of raw forest produce not specially mentioned above or in the two following categories ...	"	5 00	...	6 61	...	...
		"	20 00	...	25 45	...	...
CATEGORY VII.							
<i>Vegetable dyes.</i>							
59	a. Vegetable dyes of all kinds, except indigo	"	10 00	...	13 23	...	...
	b. Indigo	"	300 00	10 00	396 75	13 20	British
60	Cups of acorns, tree bark, and all other vegetable substances used in tanning	"	Free	...	Free	...	...
<i>Tannins.</i>							
CATEGORY VIII.							
<i>Minerals, raw, in general.</i>							
61	a. Marble; slabs and stones quite in the rough; slabs for typography and lithography; slabs, blocks or in its natural state; grindstones and hones for razors, hand-saws, and other tools; millstones for steam mills, with or without iron bands; argillous earth in general; garden mould; fire clay; coal or lignite; potter's earth; chromate; emery; solid limestone; granite; opiate; sand; materials for glassmaking; lime; precious stones not mounted; sulphur ore; and sulphur in powder or in pieces of all kinds; magnetite or white stones; and other raw mineral substances not designated above or below; and sand of different colours	"	Free	...	Free	...	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

ATHENS.

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Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
62	<i>Minerals, etc.—continued.</i>						
	<i>b.</i> Volcanic ashes (puzzolana), cement, hydraulic lime, earth of Vicenza and Marselles	100 okes	5 00	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	...
	<i>c.</i> Alum and chalk in pieces, pencils or powder	...	5 00	...	...	...	...
	<i>d.</i> Ochres of all colours	...	5 00	Free	6 61	Free	German
	<i>e.</i> Mineral waters in general, without allowance for fare	...	15 00	...	6 61	...	...
	<i>f.</i> Pigment in general	...	40 00	...	19 84	...	...
	<i>g.</i> Pigment in general	...	2 00	...	52 90	...	...
	<i>h.</i> Mineral oils (except petroleum, the importation of which is prohibited as a Government monopoly)	...	80 00	...	2 65	...	...
		...	...	...	66 13	...	...
		...	...	...	...	...	...
63	<i>Raw metals.</i>						
	<i>Iron:—</i>	...	Free	...	Free	...	...
	<i>a.</i> Iron ore; cast iron, crude	...	...	...	...	...	...
	<i>b.</i> Iron in plain bars (without grooves like rails); in plates of all dimensions for building and other purposes; in ties for walls; in rolls; in hoops; in strips; in sheets, unrolled; in springs for furniture; in sheets, tin-plated, coloured or varnished, and in the same forms unwrought, not specially mentioned	...	4 00	Free	5 29	Free	German
	Steel in bars, sheets, or pieces	...	12 00	Free	15 87	Free	German
	Lead—lead ore however combined with other metals; lead in pigs, bars, or sheets; and antimony	...	10 00	...	13 23	...	...
	Tin—tin ore, however combined with other metals; tin in blocks, bars, sheets, pieces, or plates	...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	Zinc:—	...	...	...	...	...	...
	<i>a.</i> Zinc ore however combined with other metals; calcined zinc; zinc in blocks or sheets, combined with other metallic substances	...	10 00	...	13 23	...	...
	<i>b.</i> Zinc in plates or sheets, combined with other metallic substances, suitable for building	...	10 00	Free	13 23	Free	German
63	<i>Copper:—</i>	...					
	<i>a.</i> Ore of copper however combined with other metals; copper or alloy of copper with common metals, in blocks, bars, or sheets; and old copper vessels broken or unworkable	...	40 00	...	52 90	...	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class In Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
<i>Rare metals—continued.</i>							
69	b. Copper in plates or sheets, combined with zinc or other metals, suitable for shipbuilding Brass—brass in blocks, bars, plates, and sheets, thick or thin, without gilding	100 okes "	40 00 30 00	Free "	Dr. 1. 52 90 39 63	Free "	German "
NOTE.—This class includes bronze.—(Translator's note.)							
70	Silver—ore of silver, however combined with other metals; silver in blocks, bars, or fragments of old articles for recasting	"	Free	"	Free	"	"
71	Gold—ore of gold, however combined with other metals; gold in blocks, ingots, bars, or fragments of old articles, and old articles easily discernable as designed for recasting	"	Free	"	Free	"	"
72	Wire, for telegraphs, or for other purposes, of all kinds, of iron, steel, or copper, pure or alloyed with other metals; and wire of any other metallic substance (except gold and silver wire, which is included under "Wrought metals," Category XVII.); white wire and cords for musical instruments, iron filings, and scraps of other metals	"	20 00	Free	23 45	Free	German
CATEGORY IX.							
<i>Medicaments and patent medicines.</i>							
73	Flowers, mosses, and leaves	Oke	1 00	"	1 32	"	"
74	Rosa bark, and camphor	"	0 50	"	0 66	"	"
75	Camphorides	"	1 00	"	1 32	"	"
76	Musk	Dram.	0 50	"	0 66	"	"
77	Opium and castoreum	Oke	8 00	"	10 58	"	"
78	Saffron	"	12 00	"	15 87	"	"
79	Tinctures, extracts, and syrups (not being patent medicines)	"	1 00	"	1 32	"	"
80	Volatile oils (essences)	"	6 00	"	6 61	"	"
81	Fixed oils, that is to say, cod-liver oil, castor oil, almond oil, and the like; plasters of all kinds, and ointments	"	0 50	"	0 66	"	"
82	Patent medicines— a. Liquids in glass bottles	"	2 00	"	2 65	"	"

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
	<i>Medicaments and patent medicines—continued.</i>		Dr. l.	Dr. l.	Dr. l.	Dr. l.	
83	<i>b. Solids in glass bottles</i>	Oke ...	4 00	...	5 29	...	...
84	<i>c. Solids in boxes</i>	" ...	5 00	...	6 61	...	...
	<i>d. Quinine in general</i>	" ...	40 00	Free	52 90	Free	German
	<i>e. Quinine in capsules</i>	" ...	40 00	...	52 90	...	...
	<i>f. Quinine in ampoules</i>	" ...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	<i>All other medicaments not specially mentioned, without tare allowance for the vessels which contain them</i>	100 okes	...	...	...	...	...
	<i>Surgical articles.</i>						
85	<i>Trusses, bandages, setons, India-rubber nipples, elastic probes, feeding bottles, elastic stockings, suspenders, &c.; common lint, charcoal, cotton, lissues and other substances impregnated with antiseptics</i>	" ...	100 00	...	132 95	...	...
	<i>Chemical products.</i>						
86	<i>Colours made from coal tar (aniline, naphthalene, &c.) in any form</i>	" ...	800 00	200 00	1,083 00	264 50	...
87	<i>Colours and varnishes prepared with oil; and blacking</i>	" ...	60 00	...	66 13	...	...
88	<i>Varnish prepared with alcohol</i>	" ...	70 00	...	82 68	...	...
89	<i>a. All other mineral or metallic colours, not liquid, such as red lead, white lead, litharge, &c.</i>	" ...	40 00	Free	52 90	Free	German
90	<i>b. All other vegetable or animal colours, not liquid, except those specially mentioned</i>	" ...	40 00	...	52 90	...	...
	<i>Essences, perfumes, aqueous, or acetous; essences; aromatic oils, soaps, powders, or pastes for various uses; fragrant herbs and wood; fragrant substances in bags or different tins; cosmetics, pearl paste, powder and other toilet articles in any form</i>	Oke ...	5 00	2 50	6 61	2 30	French
91	<i>a. Soaps in general, not perfumed</i>	100 okes	40 00	...	52 90	...	...
92	<i>b. Soap for washing wool in blocks</i>	" ...	100 00	...	132 95	...	...
93	<i>Mustard prepared and in jars; and all other seasonings not specially mentioned</i>	Oke ...	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
94	<i>Products of distillery, fragrant, except volatile oils and portunes</i>	" ...	1 00	...	1 82	...	...
95	<i>a. Starch, starch flour of all kinds</i>	100 okes	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	<i>b. Potato starch, taste bitter to the taste by alteration</i>	" ...	6 00	...	6 61	...	...
	<i>c. Common linguae, glue of hides or bones, and glue of all other kinds, solid or liquid</i>	" ...	40 00	...	52 90	...	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measures on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
	<i>Chemical products—continued.</i>		Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	
96	b. Refined isinglass (gelatine) of all qualities and colours	100 okes	100 00	...	132 25	...	...
97	Wafers in general...	Oke	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
98	a. White wax in cakes or pieces and sealing wax	100 okes	Prohibited	...	Prohibited	...	...
99	b. Sealing wax in cakes, blocks, &c., for sealing bottles	...	120 00	...	138 70	...	...
100	Kerosene, paraffin, stearine, and all artificial waxy substances	...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
101	White wax tapers or candles of all kinds or sizes; and images moulded in wax	...	120 00	...	138 70	...	...
102	Stearine candles	...	400 00	...	529 00	...	...
103	Finest oil of olives and all other oils of olives and for all purposes	...	200 00	...	264 60	...	...
	a. Potash, soda, caustic soda, suitable for industrial uses and glass, sulphate for making gunpowder, chloride of potash, chloride of lime, sulphide of carbon, and olein	...	60 00	...	66 13	...	...
	b. Sulphate of iron (vitriol), and sulphate of copper (blue vitriol)	...	Free	...	Free	...	...
	c. Pure acids, that is to say, sulphuric acid (spirits of vitriol), hydrochloric acid (spirits of salt), nitric acid (aqua-fortis), phenic acid and other similar acids, as well as all other chemical products not specially mentioned	...	5 00	...	6 61	...	...
104	d. Impure acids (so-called acids of commerce)	...	20 00	10 00	26 45	13 20	British
	e. Empyreumatic oils, including oils suitable for lubricating machinery, as well as those used for producing gas	...	10 00	Free	13 23	Free	British
105	F. Syes	...	50 00	...	66 13	...	...
106	G. Condensed milk	Oke	5 00	...	6 61	...	...
107	Lemon juice	100 okes	100 00	...	132 25	...	...
108	Fuzes for mines	...	300 00	...	386 45	...	...
		...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
109	Gunpowder:—	...	...	...	...	...	...
	a. For sporting or military purposes, dynamite and fireworks	...	180 00	...	238 05	...	...
	b. Blasting powder	...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
110	Salt for cooking (monopoly)	...	Prohibited	...	Prohibited	...	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
	CATEGORY X.		Dr. L	Dr. L	Dr. L	Dr. L	
	<i>Hides and skins, dressed, in pieces.</i>						
111	Hides or sole-leathers, in small or large pieces; white cowhide...	100 okes	100 00	...	132 25	...	...
112	Calf skin, coloured or not; morocco leather; goat, ram, hare, beaver, and sheep skins, coloured or not; shagreen; Russian leather; and cowhide, coloured or varnished	...	250 00	...	330 63	...	...
113	Varnished leather and camels' hides...	...	250 00	...	330 63	...	...
114	Skins of musk rats and other rare animals, not specially designated	...	250 00	...	330 63	...	...
	<i>Boots and shoes.</i>						
115	a. Boots and shoes and slippers of all shapes and of all kinds for men, women and children	Oke	8 00	...	10 53	...	...
116	b. Coarse boots and shoes for labourers, with thick wooden soles	...	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
117	Shoes and slippers of woolen, linen, or cotton tissues, including felt shoes and slippers with silken or other embroidered tissue, or with tissue interwoven with silver or gold	...	10 00	...	13 23	...	...
	<i>Various leather articles.</i>						
118	Sword-belts, chin-straps, and all leather articles for sporting or military purposes	100 okes	480 00	...	624 80	...	...
119	Leather bands for machinery, and linings for hats	...	Free	...	Free	...	...
120	Goat-skins, stitched, new or not	...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
121	Fripping, knapsacks, bellows for domestic use, children's satchels, portfolios for saddlebags	...	100 00	...	132 25	...	...
122	Saddles in general	Each	15 00	...	19 84	...	...
123	Other harness-makers' wares (harness, holsters, &c.)	...	3 00	...	3 97	...	...
124	Small leather wares— a. Cases ("étuis"), portfolios of all kinds, note-books, pocket-books, watch-chains, and other small articles of all kinds of leather	Oke	10 00	...	13 23	...	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
	<i>Various leather articles—continued.</i>		Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	
125	b. Narghlich tubes	Oke ...	5 00	...	6 61	...	...
126	Leather gloves in general without fur...	Pair ...	1 00	...	1 32	...	...
	Travelling bags:—						
	a. Plain valises of ox, cow, calf, or morocco leather, not containing toilet necessities	Oke ...	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
	b. Ditto with metal ornaments, or of finer leather	...	6 00	...	7 94	...	...
	<i>Manufactured bones.</i>						
127	Small articles of various kinds of bone, horn, or imitation bone, plain, carved, or ornamented	...	3 00	...	3 97	...	...
123	Small articles of ivory, tortoise-shell, or rhinoceros, plain, carved, or ornamented; and ivory lamps, plain, or with common metal, carved or gilt...	...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	<i>CATEGORY XI.</i>						
	<i>Wooden manufactures, of common wood.</i>						
129	Wooden pumps, oars, and other articles suitable for ships, (except furniture and fancy goods)	100 okes	30 00	Free	39 68	Free	German
130	a. Articles of common wood, gilt, inlaid, carved, or ornamented; and inexpensive walking-sticks, and beads or rosaries of all kinds of wood, seeds, or kernels	...	200 00	...	264 50	...	...
	b. Spindles and spinning wheels of all kinds suitable for industrial workshops	...	Free	...	Free	...	...
131	Toys	Oke ...	5 00	...	6 81	...	...
132	Pipe-stems (chibuks or pipes) and mouthpieces	...	6 00	...	7 94	...	...
133	All other articles of common wood of any kind, whether or not specially intended, such as seats, new or old, with or without iron hoops; trunks, plain or covered with oilcloth, or cotton, hempen or linen tissue, or with tin or sheet iron; and key racks	100 okes	30 00	...	39 68	...	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Lines in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
134	<i>Wooden manufactures, of precious wood.</i> All articles of precious wood, plain, carved, inlaid, &c.; fancy walking-sticks, and trunks of cedar or palm wood, plain or carved ...	100 olkes ...	300 00	...	396 75	...	...
135	<i>Furniture in general.</i> Furniture:— a. Of common wood, not upholstered ... b. Of common wood, upholstered ... c. Of precious wood, not upholstered ... d. Of precious wood, simply upholstered, or entirely covered with common stuff, and chairs of real cane, or of round wood ... e. Of precious wood, expensively upholstered, or covered with expensive stuffs ...		40 00 60 00 80 00 100 00 400 00		52 90 79 35 105 80 132 25 529 00		
136 137*	<i>Produce of sugar industry.</i> Grape sugar (petmést) and molasses ... Sugar of all qualities and howsoever made; sugar of fecula, and syrups derived from it; glucose of all densities; and honey, liquid or in the comb ...		25 00 90 00	... 73 91	33 06 119 03	... 97 75	
138 129	<i>Confectionery.</i> "Halva" of honey or of sugar ... All other kinds of confectionery, of honey, or of sugar, not specially mentioned ...	... Oke ...	80 00 3 00		105 80 3 97		

* The reduction of duty on this class is only apparent: the actual duty payable in paper remains unchanged.—(See p. 4.—Translator.)

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
			Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	
140	<i>Pastry-cooks' accret.</i>						
141	Plain pastry	100 oke	20 00	...	28 45	...	...
142	Common biscuits ("galettes"), "gimblettes," without sugar or butter	"	16 00	...	19 84	...	...
	Biscuits ("galettes"), "gimblettes," &c., with sugar or butter or both; and crackers, with or without sugar or butter; and all similar goods, including "pâte à kadaif"	"	80 00	...	105 80	...	...
143	<i>Conestibles not elsewhere mentioned.</i>						
	Fruits preserved in vessels hermetically sealed; fruits preserved in wine, spirits, or syrup; candied fruits, and other articles not specially mentioned	Oke ...	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
144	<i>Category XIII.</i>						
	<i>Wines in general.</i>						
	a. Wort and wines in casks or other vessels	100 oke	200 00	Free	284 50	Free	French
	b. Wines, not sparkling, in bottles	"	300 00	Free	386 75	Free	French
	c. Wines, sparkling, in bottles	"	500 00	Free	681 25	Free	French
145	<i>Vinegars.</i>						
	a. Vinegar, common, in jars	"	20 00	...	28 45	...	...
	b. Vinegar in bottles	"	100 00	...	132 25	...	...
146	<i>Alcoholic liquors in general.</i>						
	a. Beer, in casks or other vessels	"	60 00	35 00	79 35	46 29	...
	b. Beer in bottles of all sizes	"	80 00	60 00	119 03	79 35	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class Tariff.	Description of Class.	Unit of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
147	<i>Alcoholic liquors in general—continued.</i>		Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	
148	Alcohol and alcoholic liquors in general above 70 degrees of the areometer (centigrade)	100 okes of capacity	200 00	100 00	284 50	132 00	German
149	Alcohol and alcoholic liquors below 70 degrees (including unrefined alcohol) ...	100 okes of capacity	160 00	70 00	198 38	92 40	German
150	Liqueurs of all kinds	Oke ...	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
151	CATEGORY XIV.						
152	<i>Yarns of cotton.</i>						
153	Ginned cotton	100 okes	Free	...	Free	...	...
154	Cotton wool (wadding) of all colours	...	100 00	...	132 25	...	...
155	Cotton yarn, single, unbleached:—	...	...	...	...	...	...
156	a. Up to No. 24, English	...	80 00	50 00	79 35	66 00	British
157	b. Above	...	80 00	60 00	105 80	79 20	British
158	Cotton yarn, single, bleached:—	...	...	...	...	...	...
159	a. Up to No. 24, English... ..	...	68 00	...	87 29	87 12	British
160	b. Above	...	88 00	66 00	116 38	...	...
161	Cotton yarn, single, water-dyed:—	...	...	...	...	...	...
162	a. Up to No. 24, English	...	80 00	...	105 80	...	...
163	b. Above	...	104 00	80 00	137 54	105 60	British
164	Cotton yarn, single, oil-dyed, irrespective of number	...	150 00	...	198 38	...	...
165	Norm.—Twisted yarns pay an additional 20 per cent. on the duty applicable to each class of single yarns. This additional duty is not applied to yarns proceeding from States with which Greece is bound by Convention.						
166	Cotton threads for sewing, wound on cards or bobbins, or in skeins, white, unbleached, or dyed, twisted or corded or not, without tare allowance as regards cards	...	250 00	150 00	330 63	198 38	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Unit of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
165	Yarn and thread of linen, hemp, and jute.	100 okes	150 00	Dr. 1.	198 33	Dr. 1.	...
167			60 00	...	79 35	...	
168	Tissues of linen, hemp, and jute.	...	110 00	90 00	145 43	118 80	British
169			300 00	200 00	336 75	234 00	
170	Laces and embroideries.	...	80 00	...	105 80	...	...
171			30 00	...	33 63	...	
172	Velvet, small-ware, fringes, ribbons, &c., and linen which made, with an addition of Ready-made clothes for men and boys are liable to the duty upon the tissue of which made.	...	16 00	8 00	21 16	10 53	British
173			6 00	3 00	7 94	3 95	
174	Ready-made clothes for women and girls:— a. Plain b. With embroidery or lace, and without deduction for care	...	50 ⁷ / ₁₀	40 ⁷ / ₁₀	50 ⁷ / ₁₀	40 ⁷ / ₁₀	British
175			20 00	15 00	28 45	19 80	
	Yarn of wool or hair.	...	30 00	15 00	39 68	19 80	British
			...	...	...	...	
	Yarn— a. Unbleached, twisted or not b. Bleached, dyed, twisted or not, suitable for the manufacture of common flannels, stockings, &c. c. All other yarns, except those for the manufacture of fez caps, for which see the following category	100 okes	400 00	Free	529 00	Free	German
			200 00	540 00	284 50	712 80	
		...	800 00	540 00	1,038 00	712 80	German

* The general duty on this class being lower than the conventional, the former is applied.—(Translator.)

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of lines in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Unit of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
	<i>Tissues of wool or hair.</i>		Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	
176	Serges, sagrums, coarse cloths, leggings and gaiters of coarse wool, and the like: coarse blankets for animals; belts such as those for gymnastics; bands, and ready-made clothes of the above tissues for sailors	100 okes ...	100 00	...	132 25	...	...
177	Carpets:— a. Of hair of dogs, calves, or other large animals b. Of knitted carpets of felt c. Of knitted carpets of wool and cotton, woven or knitted; and carpets of wool and hemp or jute mixed d. Persian, Georgian, and other similar carpets	" " " "	40 00 120 00 250 00 600 00	 200 00 ...	62 90 158 70 330 63 793 50	 264 00 ...	 British ...
178	Table-cloths, curtains, and other similar articles made of wool and cotton	Oke ...	10 00	...	13 23	...	...
179	School and travelling bags, and sailors' caps	"	1 60	...	2 12	...	...
180	Felts (except for carpets and machinery), and felt for hats, one-shaped, of the natural colour, and not otherwise manufactured; and cloth linings	100 okes ...	Free	...	Free	...	...
181	Underclothing (lannel waistcoats) of cotton, knitted or sewn; stockings, shawls, and travelling caps (except of Scotch caps); bed and table covers of wool or wool and cotton	"	500 00	...	651 25	...	...
182	a. Valves: travelling rugs; ribbons; tassels and fringes; common printed shawls; small woven shawls; sewn articles; satin of wool or of wool and cotton; felt tissues not included in Class 177b, whether all the above be made of wool or of wool and cotton b. Corda, brads, galcons and edgings of wool, or wool and cotton (if the wool increases the value of the latter by more than 30 per cent, otherwise see Class 162z)	Oke ... "	6 00 8 00	... 6 00	7 94 10 53	... 7 92	... German
183	Shawls and cashmere shawls, of merino, tissues of a similar kind, small knitted shawls, lace, tulles, guirlandes, fichus, embroideries, needlework with or without admixture of merino threads	"	12 00	...	15 87	...	...
1 4	Tissues of hair of other animal yarn (hair) not specially mentioned, of all colours and make, except fine tissues such as gruzzes, and the laces, tulles, guirlandes, &c., included in the preceding class:— a. Up to the weight of 150 grammes (46 drams 87) per square metre b. " " 350 " (109 " 38) " " " "	" " " "	16 00 10 00	12 00 8 00	21 16 13 23	15 87 10 53	

ATHENS.

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Unit of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
	<i>Tissues, etc.—continued.</i>		Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	
194	Tissues of silk of all colours not specially mentioned, and grenadine of silk and cotton	Oke ...	30 00	...	39 68	...	...
195	Tissues of silk not specially mentioned, containing also other textile substances not covered	" ...	10 00	...	13 23	...	...
196	Edgings, braids, and cords, containing other textile substances besides silk	" ...	12 00	8 00	15 37	10 56	German
197	Ready-made clothes for men and boys pay the same duty as the tissue of which they are made, plus 50 per cent.	" ...					
198	Ready-made clothes for women and girls pay the duty chargeable on the material paying the highest rate among tissues of which they are made (provided that material increases the value by more than 30 per cent.), plus 50 per cent.	" ...					
199	Other cloth and accessories, in which there is silk are not classed among silk tissues, when the silk does not entirely cover the yarn of the other textile substances, or is not mixed with them throughout the length of the tissue.)	" ...	8 00	...	10 63	...	...
200	<i>Baby linen.</i> a. Layettes, single b. " double	Each ... " ...	4 00 10 00		5 20 13 23		
	CATEGORY XV. <i>Esparto grass goods.</i>						
201	a. Cordage of esparto, and all other articles not specially mentioned b. Matting for rooms	100 okes "	10 00 20 00		13 23 26 45		
202	<i>Coarse hempen goods.</i> Yarn of hemp suitable for rope-making	"	Free	...	Free	...	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

ATHENS.

37

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Unit of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
203	<i>Coarse hempen goods—continued.</i>		Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	
204	Coarse tissues: sacks, new or worn; cords, white or tarred, wheresoever made; twine for ordinary use (except chemists' and shoemakers' twine); and piping of linen or hempen tissues	100 okes	30 00	...	29 63	...	...
	Tow in general	"	5 00	...	6 61	...	...
205	<i>Articles for fishing or hunting.</i>						
	Fishing or hunting nets of linen, hair, or silk	Oke	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
206	<i>Fullers' wares.</i>						
207	Yarn of wool for fez caps, oil-dyed, not twisted	100 okes	200 00	Free	264 50	Free	German
208	Fez caps in general, of natural colour, for fez caps	"	200 00	Free	264 50	Free	...
	Fez caps in general, red, white, or black, of all qualities and wheresoever made	"	800 00	...	1,033 00	...	...
209	<i>Hatters' wares.</i>						
	a. Fels for hats, dyed, cone-shaped, but not starched or gummed	100	50 00	...	66 13	...	...
	b. Plaids of straw, bark, or white wood for making common hats for workmen	100 okes	30 00	...	39 68	...	...
	c. " " " hats of good quality	"	100 00	...	132 25	...	...
	d. " " " fancy goods, or mixed with other textile materials for making women's hats	Oke	3 00	...	3 97	...	...
210	Hats in general:—	Each	5 00	...	6 61	...	...
	a. Light, of silk or other substances, or mixed, and opera hats	...	...	...	...	...	...
	b. Light, of straw or other substances, except straw hats, ready for use (even if the lining or some other part is of silk or other material) and intended for the object of presenting them as felt, or if their complete shape have not been given to them, with the object of presenting them as half finished	"	4 00	2 50	5 29	3 31	...
	c. Of straw or palm fibre, for men and boys, of good quality, and women's hats, unfinished	"	2 50	1 50	3 31	1 98	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Unit of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
	<i>Hatters' wares—continued.</i>		Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	
	Hats—continued.						
	d. Coarse, of straw, for workmen	100 ...	30 00	15 00	39 68	19 84	...
	e. Women's hats, of felt or not, untrimmed	Each ...	4 00	2 50	5 29	3 31	...
	f. " " trimmed in any manner, but not made of silk	" ...	10 00	...	13 23	...	...
	g. " " made of silk	" ...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	h. Infants' hats (except those of straw, which are taxed under Sub-classes c and d)	" ...	20 % ad. val.	...	20 % ad. val.	...	...
	<i>Artificial flowers and feathers for dress.</i>						
211	Artificial flowers, of tissues of all qualities, single, in garlands or in wreaths; and similar articles of wax, with or without ribbons, &c.	Oke ...	30 00	...	39 68	...	...
212	Feathers for dress, prepared in all forms	" ...	200 00	...	264 50	...	...
	<i>Basket-makers' wares.</i>						
213	Baskets of all shapes, of willow, reeds, or plaited wood, for common use	100 okes	Free	...	Free	...	...
214	Similar wares for bottles or for oil-presses; mats for packing furniture or other goods	" ...	Free	...	Free	...	...
215	Fruit-baskets	" ...	16 00	...	13 23	...	...
216	Baskets and all other goods, of wickerwork or other vegetable substance, except those included in Class 213	" ...	40 00	...	62 90	...	...
217	Fancy basket ware, of all shapes and of all vegetable substances suitable for basket making, even if combined with metals or ornamented with metal	Oke ...	4 00	...	5 29	...	...
218	Doormats	100 okes	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	<i>Miscellaneous articles.</i>						
219	Indiarubber goloshes	Oke ...	6 00	...	7 84	...	...

GREECE.

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Unit of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
	<i>Miscellaneous articles—continued.</i>		Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	
220	Whips of sinew with or without metal, or of waxed threads, or mixed with leather...	Dozen	6 00	...	7 94	...	...
221	Cords of sinew for testing, cotton, for musical instruments, or for other purposes; fibres of agave, and articles of amaranthus...	Oke	Free	...	Free	...	...
222	<i>Brooms in general.</i> Brooms.— a. Simple ordinary b. Of other kinds, of vegetable substances, with or without handles...	100 okes "	20 00 40 00	...	26 45 52 90	...	...
223	<i>Pottery and porcelain.</i> a. Earthenware, of all sorts, unglazed b. Common-baked bricks, tiles for building and roofing, and earthenware pipes, all unglazed c. Bricks, wholly or partially of cement, glazed or unglazed, coloured or not; and earthenware bricks for floors... d. Firebricks e. Earthenware of all sorts, glazed (varnished), in or other glaze (except varnish), white or of a single colour approaching white, and plain or with stencilled designs in one colour... Articles similar to the preceding of more than one colour, or with designs in relief, or gilt; or articles of any other kind, with stencilled designs Articles of porcelain of every kind, white and plain Articles similar to the preceding, coloured, or with designs in relief, or gilt, or with other stencilled designs	1,000 100 okes " " " " "	2 00 20 00 6 00 Free 6 00 30 00 80 00 100 00 400 00	...	2 65 26 45 7 94 Free 7 94 39 63 105 80 132 25 529 00	...	...
224							German
225							German
226							German
227							German
228							German

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Unit of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
229	<i>Pottery and porcelain—contained.</i> Lamps and all other kinds of fancy or artistic ware, European, Chinese, Japanese, &c. ...	Oke ...	7 00	...	Dr. 1. 9 26	Dr. 1. ...	...
230	<i>Glass.</i> Broken glass, glass powder, or glass in lumps	100 okes	Free	6 00	Free	7 94	...
231	Common bottles, including demijohns, except white bottles	"	8 00	...	10 58	...	...
232	Glasses, including demijohns, except white bottles, but tinted in the mass	"	80 00	80 00	68 13	88 68	...
233	Articles similar to the above, cut or engraved	"	100 00	75 00	132 25	99 19	...
234	Articles similar to the above, decorated with gold or colours, or tinted in the mass with more than one colour; and articles of crystal, except those specially mentioned	"	200 00	150 00	264 50	198 38	...
235	Window glass:— a. Common, and photographic plates ... b. Coloured, polished or engraved ...	"	25 00	...	33 06	...	...
236	Watch glasses ...	"	40 00	...	52 90	...	...
237	Watch glasses; glasses for spectacles (not for eye-glasses); and glasses for optical instruments ...	"	50 00	...	66 13	...	...
238	Glass imitations of pearls, gums, and coral; pendants of lustrous, spun glass; balls, beads, &c.; and chimneys, globes, and shades for lamps, imported separately	Oke ...	3 00	...	3 97	...	...
	CATEGORY XVII. <i>Minerals, wrought.</i>	"	1 00	...	1 32	...	...
239	a. Articles of marble, real or imitation, or of stone (except ancient statues, which are free of duty), or of alabaster, plain, sculptured, or gilt ...	100 okes	200 00	...	264 50	...	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Unit of Weight or Measure in which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
	<i>Minerals, wrought—continued.</i>						
	<i>b. Slabs of marble of any shape, sawn or not, partly or entirely polished or not</i>	100 okes	4 00	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	...
	<i>Slabs of stone, and of Maltese stone</i>	100 "	10 00	"	5 29	"	...
	<i>Slabs for paving; slate pencils, with or without wooden covering; and blackboards of sheet iron</i>	100 okes	Free	"	13 23	"	...
	<i>Simple iron goods.</i>						...
	<i>a. Rails, points, and cast-iron bridges for railroads</i>	"	Free	Free	Free	Free	German
241	<i>Iron pipes, T-iron, and other kinders</i>	"	8 00	10 00	10 58	13 20	German
242	<i>b. Finer articles of cast-iron of natural colour or whitened, tinned or glazed</i>	"	10 00	10 00	13 23	13 20	German
243	<i>Articles of cast-iron, as above, suitable for fittings of tables or offices, brackets, buckles, gas-fittings, &c., and tinned goods</i>	"	120 00	80 00	168 70	105 80	...
	<i>c. Iron buttons</i>	"	40 00	40 00	62 90	62 80	German
244	<i>All kinds of wrought-iron goods, not polished, burnished, nor gilt, but only tinned, varnished, glazed, or filed</i>	"	40 00	25 00	52 90	33 00	German
	<i>(Common knives with handles of wood, of common bone, or of iron, or of composition, are included in this class.)</i>						
245	<i>All kinds of wrought-iron goods, polished, burnished, gilt, or galvanised; and nails, screws, and tacks in general, polished or gilt</i>	"	50 00	50 00	68 13	66 00	German
	<i>(Common knives, with handles as above, are included in this class.)</i>						
246	<i>Iron safes in general</i>	"	40 00	"	52 90	"	...
247	<i>Wire gauze and lay figures</i>	"	30 00	"	39 68	"	...
248	<i>Nails, screws, and tacks in general</i>	"	20 00	"	26 45	"	German
249	<i>Agricultural implements and tools</i>	"	Free	Free	Free	Free	German
250	<i>Goods, suitable for shipbuilding and used in ships</i>	"	10 00	Free	13 23	Free	German
251	<i>Birds, geese, and duck-geese</i>	"	200 00	"	264 50	"	...

* The general duty on this class being lower than the conventional, the former is applied.—(Translator.)

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Articles in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Unit of Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
			Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	
<i>Machinery.</i>							
252	a. Suction or forcing pumps and fire-engines of any metal, agricultural and industrial machines, and pieces or parts of them	100 okes	Free	Free	Free	Free	German
253	b. Motive machinery, boilers of all kinds, accessories of machines, watering machines, and various other machines, except those specially mentioned ...	"	Free	Free	Free	Free	"
254	Mechanical roasting-jacks, mincing machines, and other mechanical appliances for household use	"	100 00	...	132 25	...	"
255	a. Coffee mills; scales, decimal or other, of iron, with their weights, even if the latter are imported separately	"	40 00	40 00	62 90	62 80	German
256	b. Apparatus for watering streets and latrines	Each	40 00	...	52 90	...	"
257	c. Sewing machines, and their parts	"	25 00	Free	33 06	Free	German
	d. Machines for all other domestic industries	"	20 00	Free	26 45	Free	German
	Sponge fishing or diving apparatus	"	Free	...	Free	...	German
	Padlocks and locks, plain or brass mounted	100 okes	90 00	60 00	119 03	79 20	German
<i>Steel goods.</i>							
258	Rails and points for railways	"	Free	Free	Free	Free	German
259	Springs for carriages and railway carriages	"	30 00	...	39 63	...	"
260	Bullets, slugs, and small shot	"	50 00	50 00	66 13	66 00	German
261	a. Fine steel wires	"	200 00	...	264 50	...	"
	b. Sewing needles, without deduction for tare on account of wrappings or cases ...	Oke ...	2 00	2 00	2 65	2 64	German
<i>Leadens goods.</i>							
262	Printing type and typographical ornaments	100 okes	25 00	...	33 06	...	"
263	Pipes, plates, and sheets for roofing or other purposes, and rolls	"	25 00	...	33 06	...	"
264	Bullets, slugs, and small shot	"	30 00	...	39 63	...	"
265	a. Toys	Oke ...	5 00	...	6 61	...	"
	b. Toys	"	200 00	...	264 50	...	"
	c. All kinds of articles, plain and of coarse workmanship, and capsules for bottles, ...	"	50 00	...	66 13	...	"

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

ATHENS.

43

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Unit of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
	<i>Copper goods.</i>		Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	
266	a. Stereotype plates, plates for maps or for engraving, and similar articles ...	100 okes ...	Free	...	Free	...	...
	b. Nails, pins, and screws of copper, pure or of alloy with common metals in which predominates ...	" ...	Free	Free	Free	Free	...
267	c. Articles of all kinds, chased, gilt, or enamelled ...	Oke ...	60 00	...	66 45	...	German
	d. Articles decorated with other more precious metals ...	" ...	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
	e. Copper buttons, plain or gilt ...	" ...	3 00	...	3 97	...	...
		" ...	1 00	1 00	1 32	1 32	German
	<i>Brass goods (including Bronze goods—Translator's note).</i>						
268	a. Joints for machines or pipes in general, and typographical goods ...	" ...	Free	Free	Free	Free	German
269	b. All kinds of articles, plain and of coarse workmanship, and coffee mills, as used in the East ...	" ...	100 00	100 00	132 25	132 00	German
270	c. Articles of all kinds, chased, silvered, gilt, or enamelled ...	Oke ...	2 00	2 00	2 65	2 64	German
271	d. Articles decorated with other more precious metals ...	" ...	3 00	3 00	3 98	3 96	German
	(Brass buttons are taxed under Classes 269, 270, and 271, in accordance with the distinctions therein made.)						
	<i>Zinc goods.</i>						
272	a. All kinds of articles, plain and of coarse workmanship ...	100 okes ...	50 00	...	66 13	...	...
	b. Nails, pins, and screws, pure, or of alloy with other common metals, the zinc predominating ...	" ...	Free	Free	Free	Free	German
	c. Plain buttons of zinc, or of alloy with other more precious metals, the zinc predominating ...	" ...	40 00	40 00	52 90	52 80	German
273	d. Articles of all kinds, of fine workmanship, plain, silvered, gilt, or enamelled ...	Oke ...	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
	e. Buttons, chased, gilt, or enamelled, or made of alloy with other more precious metals, the zinc predominating ...	" ...	3 00	...	3 97	...	...
		" ...	1 00	1 00	1 32	1	German

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Goods in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Unit of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
	<i>Tin goods.</i>		Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	
274	a. All plain tin goods ... b. Plain buttons of tin, or of alloy with other more precious metals, the tin predominating ... c. Articles of tin, of all kinds, chased, silvered, gilt, or enamelled ... d. Articles of tin, decorated with other more precious metals ... e. Buttons similar to the above, chased, gilt, or enamelled ...	100 oke Oke	50 00 ... 40 00 ... 2 00 ... 3 00 ... 1 00 ...	... 40 00 1 00 ...	66 13 ... 52 90 ... 2 65 ... 3 97 ... 1 32 ...	... 52 80 1 32 ...	... German German ...
	<i>Silver odds.</i>						
276	All kinds of plain silver articles; and lamps	100 dram.	8 00	...	10 53	...	...
277	Articles of silver, of all kinds, chased, gilt, enamelled, or decorated with gold or platinum; and lamps ... <i>Gold or platinum goods.</i>	" "	12 00 ... 40 00 ...		15 87 ... 52 90 ...		
278	Articles of gold or platinum; and lamps ... <i>Goods made of metals not specially mentioned.</i>	"	...	...	...	...	...
279	Articles of all kinds resembling silver, and ornaments of white metal alloy, or of nickel alloy (such as Christofle, Elkington, and Alfenide ware, Peruvian, and Chinese silver, and the like); articles made of metals not specially mentioned; lamps and ornaments of common metals (brass, &c.) gilt, silvered, enamelled, or chased, with or without imitation precious stones ... <i>NOTE.—Ornaments of common or precious metals with sham precious stones come under Class 343.</i>	Oke ...	10 00	...	13 23	...	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

[illegible]

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Cists in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Unit of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
	<i>Watches and clocks.</i>		Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	
288	Watches of gold or gold plated	Each ...	5 00	...	6 61	...	...
289	“ silver or silver plated	“	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
290	“ other materials	“	1 00	...	1 32	...	...
291	Watch cases of gold or gold plated	“	3 00	...	4 33	...	...
292	“ silver or silver plated	“	1 00	...	1 32	...	...
293	“ other materials	“	0 50	...	0 66	...	...
294	Watches of metals, except gold, silver, and platinum	“	1 50	...	1 98	...	...
295	Clocks and alarm clocks, without cases	“	...	...	...	...	...
	Watches and clocks, complete or in parts	“	3 00	...	3 97	...	...
296	Clocks and parts of clocks suitable for public buildings	Each ...	Free	...	Free	...	...
	<i>Carroons XIX.</i>						
	<i>Products of paper manufacture in general.</i>						
297	Paper paste of whatsoever material, bleached or not, as well as paste consigned into sheets or rolls, in the form of cardboard, but easily distinguishable from cardboard by the irregularity of its two surfaces and its uneven thickness...	100 oles	Free	...	Free	...	...
298	Roofing paper, emery paper, glass paper, and tarred paper	“	Free	...	Free	...	...
299	Coarse paper, blue, grey or yellow, in large or small sheets, cut and prepared, not of cotton, linen, or hemp, but of other materials, such as wood, &c., cardboard, and paper telegraph tapes	“	40 00	20 00	52 90	26 45	...
300	Printing paper:— a. Common, unglazed	“	40 00	20 00	52 90	26 45	...
	b. Glazed	“	60 00	30 00	79 35	39 68	...
301	Letter paper of all kinds, parchment paper, and wall paper	“	200 00	100 00	264 50	132 25	...
302	a. Paper registered and account books; drawing paper; paper for the outer covers of stitched books; blank books, ruled or not; books or sheets of paper having printed words on them, suitable for diaries, &c.; and sheets of paper for copying, provided that the paper is unsuitable for making cigarettes	“	100 00	60 00	132 25	79 35	...
	b. Account books and copy books, of paper unsuitable for making cigarettes	“	120 00	...	158 70	...	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

(1498)

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
	<i>Products of paper manufacture in general—continued.</i>		Dr. l.	Dr. l.	Dr. l.	Dr. l.	
303	Writing paper of any colours:— a. Unglazed b. Glazed	100 okes	50 00 60 00	30 00 40 00	66 13 79 35	39 68 52 90	
304	Paper for various uses:— a. Paper of one colour for the outer covers of unstitched books, for tobacco wrappers, hat cases, &c., of any thickness, glazed or not, and blue paper for wrappers of "papier timbré," or official documents b. Blotting paper; grey or blue packing paper, glazed or not; canvas; and tissue paper for wrapping lemons, oranges, and other fruits, transparent and porous, in which the paper and the quantity of the coagulation can be distinguished with the naked eye, and which has not, like cigarette paper, horizontal or vertical water-marks cigarette paper (monopoly) Paper for cheques, bonds, shares, &c.; envelopes; fancy paper, coloured, or wholly or partially silvered or gilt; paper for bouquets or sweetmeats with lacework or other patterns Paper for use as stamped paper ("papier timbré") Hat cases, and boxes in general, not of papier-mâché, nor of fancy paper Articles similar to the above, of fancy paper; paper toys of all kinds, with or without covers, paper collars and cuffs; and paper ornaments covered with tinsel for coffin Bonbon boxes, plain (that is to say, without admixture of metals, tissues, or precious wood, or bone, &c., otherwise they are included in Category XX.) Mix'd materials Tracing paper; silver paper; design paper ruled in millims; muslin paper, without notes, or stitched in books; photographic, phototypic, and lithographic paper; and paper for visiting cards Papier-mâché and articles made thereof (except buttons, which are included in Category XX.)	100 okes " " " " Oke " " " " " " " 100 okes "	50 00 60 00 50 00 30 00 Prohibited 3 00 1 00 8 00 5 00 5 00 80 00 300 00	30 00 40 00 30 00 20 00 2 00 5 00 60 00 ...	66 13 79 35 66 13 39 68 Prohibited 3 97 1 32 10 68 6 61 ... 105 80 396 75	39 68 52 90 39 68 26 45 ... 2 65 ... 6 61 ... 79 35 ...	

ATHENS.

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
			Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	
	<i>Products of typography, &c.</i>						
313	Printed books, bound or not; and all other products of typography on paper (such as music books)	100 okeas ...	Free	Free	Free	Free	German
314	Lithographs, engravings on copper or on wood, chromolithographs, chromophotographs, and various other prints	" ...	Free	...	Free	...	...
	NORX.—All the above are taken to be without frames; when they are enclosed in frames, duty is paid on the frames alone.						
315	Playing cards of all kinds (monopoly)	Oke ...	Prohibited	...	Prohibited	...	...
	<i>Works of art.</i>						
316	Pictures of ancient or modern art, statues of plaster, and casts	Each ...	Free	...	Free	...	...
	NORX.—When they are enclosed in a frame, duty will be charged on the frame according to the material of which it is made.						
317	Theatrical decorations, drawing models, plans of buildings, &c.	" ...	Free	...	Free	...	...
	NORX.—When they are enclosed in a frame, the preceding note applies.						
	CATEGORY XX.						
	<i>Fans.</i>						
318	a. Fans of common straw and paper, printed	Oke ...	4 00	...	5 29	...	...
	b. Fans of Maltese straw and common Egyptian feathers	" ...	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
	c. Fans, common, except the preceding	" ...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	d. Fans with ivory or tortoise-shell handles, or of precious Egyptian feathers, or painted	" ...	60 00	...	79 35	...	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
			Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	
	<i>Cochmakers' goods.</i>						
313	a. Carriages with two wheels, lined or not, new or not	Each...	100 00	...	132 25	...	...
	b. Carriages with four wheels, lined or not, new or not	Each...	300 00	...	396 75	...	...
	c. Hand carriages and velocipedes	Each...	10 00	...	13 23	...	...
	d. Carts, ordinary, with two wheels	Each...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	e. Carts, ordinary, with four wheels	Each...	40 00	...	52 90	...	...
	f. Vehicles of other kinds not specially mentioned (such as wine-merchants, ice-makers or grocers' carts, &c.)	Each...	30 00	...	39 68	...	...
	g. Railway or tramway cars, for goods	Each...	10 o/o ad val.	...	10 o/o ad val.	...	...
	h. Railway or tramway cars, for passengers	Each...	10 o/o ad val.	...	10 o/o ad val.	...	...
	i. Hand carts, for goods	Each...	20 o/o ad val.	...	20 o/o ad val.	...	...
320	a. Carriage upholstery, such as cushions, &c.	Oke	1 00	...	1 32	...	...
	b. Carriage lamps, of common metal	Each...	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
	c. Carriage lamps, of more expensive metals	Each...	3 00	...	3 97	...	...
	(Lanterns for other purposes are also liable to the above duties.)						
	d. Ships' lanterns	Each...	Free	...	Free	...	...
	<i>Umbrellas and parasols.</i>						
321	a. Umbrellas and parasols of linen or cotton, or of linen and cotton mixed, of all makes	Each...	1 20	0 80	1 59	1 06	...
	b. Umbrellas and parasols of wool, pure or mixed	Each...	1 20	...	1 69	...	...
	c. Umbrellas and parasols of mixed silk	Each...	2 50	...	3 31	...	...
	d. Umbrellas and parasols of silk	Each...	4 00	...	5 29	...	...
	e. Handkerchiefs and frames of umbrellas and parasols, of common wood, iron, or other materials	Each...	25 o/o ad val.	...	25 o/o ad val.	...	...
	f. Handles and frames of umbrellas and parasols, of common wood, iron, or other materials	Each...	50 00	...	66 13	...	...
	g. Handles and frames of precious wood, whalebone, ivory, or rhinoceros, &c., are taxed according to the material of which made.	Each...	...	...	...	...	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
322	<i>Produce of fisheries, and minerals, manufactured.</i>		Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	Dr. 1.	
	a. Various articles of coral, worked, with or without ornaments of precious metals ...	100 dram. ...	10 00	...	13 23	...	...
	b. Real pearls, polished ...	dram. ...	Free	...	Free	...	...
	c. Mother-of-pearl, worked into various articles, without precious metals ...	Oke ...	10 00	...	13 23	...	...
323	(When the above articles contain gold, silver, or platinum, they are chargeable as gold, silver, &c.)						
	d. Articles of minerals ...	...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	<i>Games.</i>						
	Dominos, chess, draughts, and other objects of amusement of whatsoever materials, without deduction for tare on their boxes or cases ...	...	3 00	...	3 97	...	...
324	<i>Spectacles and glasses.</i>						
	a. Spectacles and eyeglasses of glass, crystal, or stone, irrespective of mounting ...	...	Free	...	Free	...	...
	b. Optical glasses, irrespective of mounting ...	...	4 00	...	5 29	...	...
	c. Telescopes, microscopes, stereoscopes, waling glasses, and in general all optical instruments of whatsoever make ...	...	Free	...	Free	...	...
325	<i>Gutta-percha and indiarubber goods.</i>						
	a. Indiarubber and gutta-percha, raw or refined ...	100 okes ...	Free	...	Free	...	...
	b. Threads of indiarubber and gutta-percha ...	...	Free	...	Free	...	...
	c. Pieces, sheets, bands, &c., of indiarubber and gutta-percha, mixed with other materials, and bat-rims of cotton steeped in gum ...	...	Free	...	Free	...	...
	d. Elastic for shoes or other purposes, mixed or not with other textile materials, and other similar articles ...	...	400 00	...	529 00	...	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
	<i>Guttapercha, &c.—continued.</i>		Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	
	<i>f. Tissues and made-up clothing, and other articles of indiarubber and guttapercha, except those specially mentioned for linings of women's dresses, steeped in gum or g. other adhesive substance which adds to the weight</i>	100 okes	500 00	...	661 25	...	..
	<i>h. Tissues similar to the preceding, of linen, hemp, or jute</i>	"	200 00	...	264 50	...	..
	<i>Articles of amber.</i>	"	400 00	...	329 00	...	..
326	All articles of amber, worked, with or without metal	Oke ...	40 00	...	52 90	...	..
	<i>Articles of glass with other materials.</i>						
327	Articles of glass, mixed with other materials of all kinds, and not specially mentioned elsewhere in the tariff... ..	" ...	20% ad. val.	...	20% ad. val.	...	..
	<i>Articles of bone, ivory, or tortoiseshell, mixed with other materials.</i>						
328	Small wares and divers articles of common bone, ivory, or tortoiseshell, mixed with other materials, and not specially mentioned	" ...	20% ad. val.	...	20% ad. val.	...	..
	<i>NOTE.—In the valuation the provision in the law, that the "other material" must increase the value of the commodity by more than 30 per cent., will be kept in view.</i>						
	<i>Mirrors in general.</i>						
329	<i>a. Small looking-glasses for soldiers and peasants, of common wood, brass, or other (non metal) or cardboard...</i>	100 okes	100 00	...	182 25	...	..
	<i>b. Looking-glasses in general, not included in the preceding sub-class and the following class ...</i>	"	200 00	...	264 50	...	..
330	Mirrors with or without frames, of half a square metre and upwards	"	300 00	...	396 75	...	..
	(When the frames and the mirrors are imported separately, each of these articles is liable to the duty on the independent commodity.)						

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
331	<i>Pocket knives.</i>		Dr. L	Dr. L	Dr. L	Dr. L	
	a. Pocket knives, with handles of wood, common metal, composition, or common bone	Oke ...	6 00	4 00	7 94	5 23	German
	b. Pocket knives, with handles of ivory, mother-of-pearl, coral, tortoise-shell, or precious metal	" ...	10 00	10 00	18 23	13 20	German
	(Pocket knives, very common, with handles of wood, are included in the category of wrought metals (Class No. 242).)						
332	<i>Oilcloth.</i>						
	a. Waxed cloth, and clothing made therefrom	100 okes	100 00	...	132 25	...	...
	b. Oilcloth for floors	"	30 00	...	39 68	...	...
	<i>Buttons (except those entirely of metal).</i>						
333	a. Buttons of ivory or mother-of-pearl	Oke ...	5 00	...	6 61	...	...
	b. Buttons of bone, horn, porcelain, papier maché, wood, or glass, or of those substances mixed with common metal	" ...	1 00	1 00	1 32	1 32	German
	c. Buttons of silk, wool, or calamauco	" ...	4 00	...	2 29	...	...
	d. Buttons of all other kinds, not specially mentioned	" ...	2 00	...	2 66	...	...
334	<i>Lamps in general.</i>						
	Lamps of every kind, not otherwise mentioned	" ...	1 00	...	1 32	...	...
	(Accessories of lamps of this class, imported separately, are liable to the same duty.)						

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

ATHENS.

53

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weights or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
333	<i>Knives, forks, and razors.</i>						
	a. Knives and forks for the table, and razors, with handles of silver, gold, or platinum, or gilt, or of ivory, tortoiseshell, mother-of-pearl, or coral, with or without cases	Oke	8 00	...	10 58	...	...
	b. Knives, forks, and razors, with handles silver-plated, or of white metal alloy resembling silver, or of nickel, or of steel, or of wood (Class 279), or of wood; and razors with handles of bone, horn, or composition, with or without cases	...	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
	c. Knives and forks, with handles of bone, horn, or composition, with ornaments of metal, silvered, with or without cases	...	2 00	1 00	2 65	1 32	German
336	<i>Products of shipbuilding industry.</i>						
	Vessels of all kinds, whether moved by steam or not, fishing boats, boats whether moved by steam or not	Each	Free	...	Free	...	...
337	<i>Arms in general.</i>						
	Arms, for cutting or thrusting:—	...	1 00	...	1 32	...	...
338	a. European military sabres and Turkish scimitars	...	3 00	...	3 97	...	...
	b. Knives (yatagans, hangers, &c.)	Oke	5 00	...	6 61	...	...
	c. Rapiers and daggers of all kinds, plain or with fancy guards...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Firearms:—	...	...	...	...	...	...
	a. Guns in general, single-barrelled, muzzle-loading	Each	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
	b. " " double-barrelled, muzzle-loading	...	10 00	...	13 25	...	...
	c. " " double-barrelled, breech-loading	...	15 00	...	18 87	...	...
	d. " " double-barrelled, breech-loading	...	20 00	...	23 45	...	...
	e. Pistols in general	Pair	5 00	...	6 61	...	...
	f. Revolvers	Each	8 00	...	10 58	...	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
			Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	Dr. L.	
344	<i>Billiard tables and accessories.</i>						
	a. Billiard tables in general, new or not ...	Each ...	150 00	...	193 38	...	...
	b. Cases and accessories, such as cue cases, scoring boards, &c. ...	Oke ...	1 00	...	1 32	...	...
	<i>Masks in general.</i>						
345	a. Masks of offcloth or paper ...	...	5 00	...	6 61	...	...
	b. Tissues ...	...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	<i>Boxes in general.</i>						
343	a. Paint-boxes with paints ...	...	Free	...	Free	...	...
	b. Dressing cases of common metal, fitted ...	...	3 00	...	3 97	...	...
	c. Cases of metal of Class 273, fitted ...	...	6 00	...	7 94	...	...
	d. Bonbon boxes of silk or velvet, with or without metal, or of leather, wood, or other material ...	...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	e. Jewel cases of velvet, of silk not velveteed, with or without metal, leather, or embroidery ...	...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	<i>Walking sticks, except those included in Category XI.</i>						
347	a. Walking sticks of whalebone, ivory, or rhinoceros ...	...	20 00	...	26 45	...	...
	b. Sticks covered with tissues or leather ...	...	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
	c. Sticks of metal, which contain weapons, parasols, or stools ...	...	20 % ad val.	...	3 97	...	...
	d. Sticks of metal, which contain weapons, parasols, or stools ...	...	20 % ad val.	...	20 % ad val.	...	...
	<i>Trays, in general (except those of gold and silver).</i>						
345	a. Trays, of iron, sheet-iron, brass, wood, papier-maché, or of a mixture of these materials, coloured, varnished, gilt or not, and trays of yellow brass, bronze, zinc, or tin ...	...	2 00	...	2 65	...	...
	b. Trays, wholly or partially silvered, or of white metal alloy resembling silver, or nickel alloy (as defined in Class 273) ...	...	10 00	...	13 23	...	...

GREEK Customs Tariff—continued.

Number of Class in Tariff.	Description of Class.	Units of Weight or Measure on which Duty is Charged.	Duty in Metallic Money.		Duty in Bank Notes.		Convention.
			General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	General Tariff.	Conventional Tariff.	
249	<i>Lustres.</i> Lustres of glass or crystal, with or without metal (except gold and silver) ***	100 okes	Dr. 1. 70 00	Dr. 1. ***	Dr. 1. 92 58	Dr. 1. ***	***
	<i>Miscellaneous.</i>						
250	Wreckage from native or foreign ships	***	Free	***	Free	***	***
251	Frames of wood or paper, covered with tissues	Oke ***	4 00	***	5 29	***	***
252	Calendars, other than those of paper ***	***	1 00	***	1 32	***	***
253	Lead pencils, wooden sheathed	***	10 00	***	1 32	***	***
254	Dressed dolls	***	48 00	***	13 43	***	***
255	Human hair, worked	***	0 50	***	60 43	***	***
256	Cylindrical blotting pad, with fur	Pair ***	1 00	***	0 68	***	***
257	Glycerine soap, in block	Oke ***	5 00	***	1 32	***	***
258	Teeth (not of wood or paper), of common metals (except lead)	***	Free	***	6 61	***	***
259	Teeth of all materials, and sets of teeth mounted in metal	***	Free	***	2 65	***	***
260	a. Cork-stoppers mounted in common metal b. " " precious metal	***	2 00 6 00	*** ***	7 94	*** ***	*** ***
261	Paint-brushes:— a. Artists' paint-brushes b. Paint-brushes for wall-painting in oil or whitewash Musical tobacco-boxes or albums pay duty according to the material of which they are made.	***	Free 0 20	*** ***	Free 0 26	*** ***	*** ***
262	Seals, engraved or not; lightning-conductors; weavers' combs of all materials; yeast; (hour-bands, minute-bands, plates, springs, &c., except cases); torpedoes; gun-carriages; rags; vaccine matter; entomological collections; antiquities and collections of antiquities and other scientific collections; natural or artificial ice; yarn of amianthus	***	***	***	***	***	***
263	Fur, sewn or in pieces, plain or mixed with other materials or tissues	***	Free 20 % ad val.	***	Free 20 % ad val.	***	***
264		***	***	***	***	***	***

DUTIES on Consumption, Payable in Paper Currency
in addition to the Duties specified in the Tariff.

Class in Tariff.	Description of Goods.	Unit.	Duty.
40	Tobacco of all kinds	Oke	Dr. 1.
144	Wine	"	5 20
146	Beer	Oke of capacity ..	0 20
147, 148	Alcohol of all degrees	" "	0 30
147, 148	Spirituos liquors containing up to 70 per cent. of alcohol ..	" "	1 50
147, 148	Spirituos liquors containing above 70 per cent. of alcohol ..	" "	1 00
			1 50

GREECE.

TABLE showing the Principal Articles altered in the New Greek Tariff, &c.—continued.

Number of Class in New Tariff.	Description of Class (in brief).	Old Duty.		New Duty.		+ Duty raised; - Duty lowered; * See above.	Value of British Trade, 1891.	Total Value of Imports, 1891.
		General.	Conventional.	General.	Conventional.			
233	Glassware, engraved or cut	Dr. 1. 50 00	Dr. 1. ...	Dr. 1. 100 00	Dr. 1. 75 00	+	£ 24	£ 1,400
234	" gilt or coloured	80 00	...	200 00	150 00	+	34	2,400
235a	Window-glass, common	20 00	...	25 00	...	+	1,700	10,100
235b	" coloured, polished, or engraved	30 00	...	40 00	...	+	82	600
236	"	40 00	...	50 00	...	+	960	2,400
238c	Plate glass	7 00	...	10 00	...	+	1,100	1,100
242a	Slabs of stone or Maltese stone	5 00	10 00	10 00	10 00	+	14,500	23,900
242c	Iron pipes and girders, iron, &c.	4 00	...	120 00	80 00	+	50	4,100
243a	Cast-iron table fittings, brackets, buckles, &c.	5 00	...	120 00	80 00	+	31,800	70,900
243b	Cast-iron table fittings, brackets, buckles, &c.	25 00	25 00	40 00	25 00	+	800	2,500
246	Iron safes	20 00	...	40 00	...	+	3,800	11,400
248	Nails, screws, and tacks	15 00	15 00	20 00	15 00	+	1,400	2,200
250	Articles of iron, suitable for shipbuilding, and for use in ships	Free	Free	10 00	Free	+	3,300	9,100
255a	Sewing machines	Free	Free	25 00	Free	+	1,000	6,700
257	Locks and padlocks	60 00	60 00	90 00	60 00	+	...	700
259	Steel springs for carriages and railway cars	10 00	...	30 00	...	+	230	1,300
263	Lead—pipes, plates, sheets, &c.	15 00	...	25 00	...	+	21	1,400
264	" bullets, slugs, and shot	20 00	...	200 00	...	+	...	...
265	" artistic articles, and leaden	500 00	...	500 00	...	+	...	...
266	" articles, and capsules for bottles	100 00	...	50 00	...	-	...	...
267a	Copper—common articles	1 00	...	2 00	...	-	140	700
267b	" articles sculptured, gilt, or enamelled	1 00	...	3 00	...	+	60	1,000
267c	" ornamented with precious metals	40 00	...	50 00	...	+	...	...
274a	Tin, common articles	Free	Free	6 00	...	+	...	...
274b	Telephones and electric instruments	...	...	...	...	+	...	...
275b	"	...	...	...	...	+	...	...
(In the following classes, to No. 311, of paper, there has been a good deal of rearrangement, the statement of values is therefore not given.)								
299	Coarse paper	10 00	...	40 00	20 00	+	...	...
300a	Printing paper, unglazed	20 00	...	60 00	30 00	+	...	...
300b	Printing paper, glazed	100 00	...	200 00	100 00	+	...	...
301	Letter paper	60 00	...	100 00	60 00	+	...	...
302a	Paper for "procès-verbaux," for account books, &c.	...	...	...	...	+	...	...

Table showing the Principal Articles Altered in New Greek Tariff, &c.—continued.

Number of Class in New Tariff.	Description of Class (in brief).	Old Duty.		New Duty.		+ Duty raised; - Duty lowered; * See above.	Value of British Trade, 1891. £	Total Value of Imports, 1891. £
		General.	Conventional.	General.	Conventional.			
302b	Account and copy-books ...	...	Dr. 1. 60 00	Dr. 1. 120 00	+	...	...	...
303a	Writing paper (new class) unglazed	...	...	...	30 00	...	...	...
303b	Writing paper (new class) glazed	...	...	...	40 00	...	...	...
304b	Paper for covers of unstitched books, for hat cases, &c.	...	...	20 00	50 00	+	...	...
309	Blank and pasting paper ...	...	...	10 00	20 00	+	...	...
311	Fancy stationery, &c. ...	...	...	15 00	30 00	+	...	...
321a	Tracing paper, &c. ...	...	...	60 00	80 00	...	...	...
321b	Umbrellas and parasols of linen or cotton	...	...	0 60	0 80	+	...	...
321c	Umbrellas and parasols of wool, or mixed	...	...	1 00	1 20	+	...	...
321d	Umbrellas and parasols of silk, mixed	...	...	1 50	2 50	+	...	...
322a	Small common looking-glasses ...	...	...	3 00	4 00	+	...	...
330	Mirrors of half a square metre and above	...	...	60 00	100 00	+	...	...
330a	Fans of treamus ...	...	...	250 00	300 00	+	...	...
330b	Revolvers ...	...	...	2 00	10 00	+	...	...
339	Cartridges ...	...	...	2 00	20 00	+	...	...
340a	Trays of iron, brass, wood, &c. ...	...	...	2 00	4 00	+	...	...
340c	Trays of iron, brass, wood, &c. ...	...	...	50	2 00	+	...	...

NOTE.—The reduction of duty on Classes 19, wheat; 137, sugar; and 159, certain cotton tissues, is only apparent; the actual duties payable in paper remain unchanged. See p. 4.
The general duty on Classes 175a of woollen yarns, and 242a of iron goods, being lower than the Conventional, the former is applied.

FOREIGN Coins Accepted as Legal Tender in Greece.

Nationality.	Coin.	Nominal Value.		Value for which accepted.	
		Dr. l.		Dr. l.	
British..	5l. piece	126	11	125	80
	2l. piece	50	44	50	32
	Sovereign	25	22	25	16
	Half sovereign	12	61	12	58
Egyptian	Pound of 100 piastres	25	73	25	67
	" 50 "	12	86	12	83
Austrian	8 florin piece (20 fr.)	20	00	19	95
	4 " (10 fr.)	10	00	9	97
	20 crown piece	21	00	20	95
	10 "	10	50	10	47
German	Double crown (20 marks).. .. .	24	69	24	63
	Crown (10 marks)	12	35	12	32
Danish..	20 crown piece	27	78	27	71
	10 "	13	89	13	85
United States..	Double eagle (20 dollars)	103	65	103	40
	Eagle (10 dollars)	51	83	51	70
	Half eagle (5 dollars)	25	91	25	85
	3 dollar piece	15	55	15	51
	2½ dollar piece	12	96	12	93
Spanish	Piece of 100 pesetas	100	00	99	75
	" 50 "	50	00	49	87
	" 25 "	25	00	24	91
	" 20 "	20	00	19	95
	" 10 "	10	00	9	97
Russian	Polon-imperial (5 roubles)	20	66	20	61
	Tchervonetz (3 roubles)	12	40	12	37
Turkish	Pound of 100 piastres	22	77	22	71
	" 50 "	11	38	11	35

EQUIVALENT of Money, Weights, and Measures.

100 lepta	= 1 drachme	= 9 ⁹ / ₁₀₀ d.
	1 dramion	0·111 ozs. avoirdupois.
400 dramia	1 oke	2·8 lbs.
44 okes	1 quintal	123·2 lbs.
	1 oke of capacity	2·34 pints.

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No. 303.

G R E E C E .

SYRA.

Consul Cottrell to the Earl of Rosebery.

My Lord,

Syra, August 13, 1893.

I HAVE the honour to transmit to your Lordship herewith, a Report on the Mineral Resources of the Island of Milo, particularly treating upon the Argentiferous Barytes, the intrinsic value of which must be very considerable.

I should like to mention that Mr. Vice-Consul Bonavia has exhibited great patience in translating and sifting the various official Reports, and in other ways aiding in the compilation of the enclosed, and I am also much indebted to Mr. Gobantz, a metallurgist in the employ of the Greek Government, for the courteous manner in which he furnished me with various technical details.

I have, &c.

(Signed) W. H. COTTRELL.

*Report on the Mineral Resources of the Island of Milo, particularly
Treating upon the Argentiferous Barytes.*

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In view of the decision taken by the Græek Government to dispose of the silver barytes of Milo, a Royal Decree to that effect having already appeared in the "Government Gazette" of May 26, 1893, I venture to hope that the following report on the mineral resources of that island, treating particularly upon the silver barytes in question, will, at the present moment, be found useful, and not altogether devoid of interest.*

The information has been gathered from various official reports and general local knowledge.

Milo re-
nowned for
its mineral
productions.

The island of Milo, the most westerly of the Cyclades, has at all times been noted for its mineral resources; but it is only recently that general attention has been attracted thereto by the discovery among its mineral beds of large quantities of argentiferous barytes.

Mineral pro-
ductions
known to the
ancients.

The mineral productions of Milo were known even to the ancients; and alum stone, sulphur, plastic clay, and absidian, were used by them in different manners. The latter was used in the pre-historical flint ages in the manufacture of weapons.

Geological
structure of
the island.

The geological structure of the island is, admittedly, one of the most curious and interesting to be found anywhere, the great variety of rocks and minerals renders it a veritable geological museum, well worth being visited and studied.

Whilst continental Greece and the Peloponnesus offer a certain uniformity, both in the petrographical structure and general character of the soil, the island of Milo consists of layers which belong to the remotest as well as the most recent periods of structural geology.

Different
rocks and
their origin.

In fact, both sedimentary and igneous rocks are to be found, as well as rocks which may be considered the result of a constant metamorphism, through the influence of the internal heat of the earth, thermal springs and liberated mineral vapours.

Surface.

The physical features of the surface are no less remarkable for diversity and abrupt change of formation, which, no doubt, owe their origin chiefly to hypogenic agencies.

Volcanic
action.

Of these, volcanic action must have played an important part in the several geological periods, judging from the marked uncom-

* The Greek Government is inviting tenders, open till noon on October 8 next, for the purchase of 150,000 tons of this mineral, particulars of which have been lodged at the Commercial Department of the Foreign Office.

formabilities and general disturbance of the stratification from its original disposition.

Some paleontological remains discovered on the island indicate that the Milo beds belong chiefly to the pleiocenic period. Discovered fossils.

Considerable upheavals had taken place, the soil having been rent asunder, forming fissures and chasms through which quantities of mineral waters and vapours issued forth, and large masses of trachytic rocks forced up from below in a molten condition, which were subsequently consolidated by degrees, forming the several hills, mountains, and valleys. Dynamical changes.

As an instance of the remarkable abruptness to which the above dynamical causes subjected the island, it may be mentioned that, on a surface covering an area of 152 square kiloms., there are extensive plains (noticeable that of Palcâhora), low hills, and summits of considerable height. Of the latter, that called Prophet Elias, is 2,548 feet high; Mikrô Vounô, 2,310 feet high; Kitzimpardos, 1,294 feet high; Kalamavras, 1,275 feet high, and Favas, 1,006 feet high from the level of the sea. Abruptness of the surface.

Considered in their mineral constitution, the group of islands (Milo, Kimolo, and Palino) consists of a primitive layer of gneiss and mica schist. To this layer are superposed quartziferous rocks of variable thickness, this system being finally covered with eruptive rocks, which belong to the trachytic formation, and principally consist of two classes, the older amphiboles, and the more recent ones containing biotite crystals, also called liparites (named from the Lipari Islands). Mineral constitution of the island.

Between these two trachytes of different ages the anomalous silvery masses occur. Subsequent to the consolidation of the older trachytes, volcanic agencies appear to have given rise to the newer plutonic masses, opening at the same time the anomalous fissures, through which thermal metalliferous springs were deflected. Position of silver ores.

There can be little doubt that mineral veins, in general, have mainly been filled from below, by heated waters depositing the mineral substances on their side walls, from chemical solutions. At Milo, however, the masses themselves were impregnated with the silver without retaining any visible indication of the presence of that metal. Hydro-plutonic theory.

Before treating on the argentiferous barytes, it may be well to notice the other useful minerals likewise uplifted to the surface in divers points of the islands, by the action of mineral waters and other chemical changes in the underlying rocks.

Sulphur occurs in thick and abundant deposits between Cape Provatâ and Cape Apollonion. The existence of these mines were known even in pre-historical ages. The Phœnicians were the first to extract sulphur, subsequently the Greeks, Romans, and Byzantines, and many old borings are still to be seen. Sulphur.

At present the mines are worked by the Hellenic Company of Public Works, established at Athens.

The sulphur centres are situated on the eastern side at Sulphur (1629) A 3 centres.

Firilingos, Paleoreoma, and Saint Theodore, in the first of which places an important exploitation is going on.

Sulphur is found within the trachytes, and attains at times a depth of 10 metres on an area of more than 200 metres. About 20 per cent. or 30 per cent. of pure sulphur is contained in the masses.

Labourers in the mines. The company employs about 220 labourers, of whom 60 are miners, 30 smelters, and the rest are employed in different ways.

Wages. Their wages vary from 3 dr. 50 l. to 4 dr.* per day for miners and smelters, and from 2 dr. to 3 dr. for the other labourers.

Furnaces employed. The furnaces employed are on the Doppioni and Gill systems. Production and its value. The annual production amounts to some 2,000 tons, chiefly consumed in Greece in the treatment of vines against the oidium; the value varies according to circumstances, from 24 l. to 28 l. per oke.

Opinion in France about the sulphur. The company have this year commenced to export the sulphur to France, where it has been declared far superior to the Sicilian produce.

Manganese. Manganese ores are to be found in many places, but more especially on the western portion of the island known as Chalaka. An extensive exploitation in open quarries is actually being carried on by the French company, "Serpieri et Cie," at Cape Vani.

The manganese occurs in alternate layers with liparite and baryta.

Labour. 250 to 300 labourers, men, women, and children, are differently employed in the mines, 150 being miners; about 50 women and children employed in cleaning the smaller particles of the mineral, the rest employed in transporting the material for shipment.

Wages. The daily wages vary from 2 dr. 50 l. to 3 dr. 50 l. for miners, and from 1 dr. to 1 dr. 75 l. for other labourers.

Annual production. The annual production amounts to 18,000 tons, of which 13,000 tons are sent to England, France, and America, generally by English steamers; the rest, which is mostly of an inferior quality, is sent to the Laurium smelteries, used as a flux in the fusion of other minerals.

Gypsum. Gypsum is found on the southern side of the harbour, near Patrichiâ and close to Mount Damianos. This mineral occurs in crystalline masses in sedimentary and other tertiary layers, and generally of a white colour.

The quality is the best to be found in Greece; the quantity disposed of is, however, limited.

Output. About 3,500 quintals are extracted; value 6 dr. per quintal (44 okes).†

Use of gypsum. Gypsum, in Greece, is exclusively employed in the preparation of new wines.

* 1 dr., at the present rate of exchange, is equal to about 6d.

† The oke is equal to 2·8 lbs.

Only 10 or 12 labourers are here employed at 2 dr. 50 l. to Labour.
3 dr. 50 l. per head.

Veins of lead ores (galenite) and zinc sulphides (sphalerite) Lead and are to be found at Kantaros, Galanâ, and Vathonas. These zinc ores minerals, which contain a small proportion of silver, were formerly worked by Mr. Serpieri; but the works ceased 18 years ago, having been considered unprofitable.

The same with copper veins at Fourkovuni. Alunite is to be Copper and found in many places, but it is not exploited by anyone. The alunite. latter mineral was, in times of yore, used by the inhabitants of Ancient use of alunite. Milo in their primitive process of leather manufacture.

Quarries of porous quartzite rocks are situated on the eastern Millstone extremity of the island, at Reoma, which are turned into the quarries. excellent millstones so well known in the East. The stones are chiefly used in Greece, a smaller quantity being sent to Turkey and Dalmatia. This industry lacks encouragement, otherwise it might have been much more developed.

About 30 labourers are employed, with wages from 2 dr. 75 l. Labour. to 3 dr. 95 l. per diem.

The value of the stones varies according to the dimensions Value of and quality. The revenue of these mines annually amounts to stones. 45,000 dr. or 50,000 dr.

Several saline springs flow on the eastern side of the harbour Salt works. from a neighbouring hillock, from which excellent crystalline salt is obtained by evaporation. It is said the Government, who have the right of this monopoly, intend adopting another improved method for increasing the annual production of salt, which at present amounts only to 200,000 oke.

The most important minerals, however, which to-day consti- Argentiferous tute the chief wealth of Milo, are the argentiferous barytes, which barytes, occur at different places in compact masses of considerable magni- liparites, tude, and the liparites and clays of a yellow and dark grey and clay colour, which also more or less contain quantities of silver.

The baryte is a chemical blending of sulphur trioxide (SO_3) Chemical and baric oxide (BaO), forming the mineral frequently found in combination nature as barium sulphate (BaSO_4). The baryte in itself is, of baryte. therefore, no metallic substance, but, like other non-metalliferous vein-stones, such as quartz, calcite, and fluor, it is commonly found in veins or in masses (as at Milo), and is generally the associate of useful metals, such as lead, silver, and iron; but it does not follow that wherever barytes occur silver should also be found. In Greece, for instance, barytes are to be met with occasionally amongst the iron ores of Seriphos, whose value is thereby much lessened; also amongst the lead ores of Laurium, and at Oliaros (Poros), within the great galenite vein, and at Mykonî, where it occurs in veins traversing the masses of granite.

The barytes of Milo and the neighbouring islands, however, Exceptional constitute an exceptional and a very remarkable phenomenon. phenomenon with the They are not only the associates of silver and lead ores, but are themselves thoroughly impregnated with silver. At Milo, silver Milo barytes. is certain to occur more or less wherever barytes occur, though the quantity thereof varies considerably throughout the mass.

This variability is indeed a very marked feature in the Milo mineral, especially the barytes containing opal, chalcedony or sand, and the siliciferous liparite, which only contain some traces of the noble metal.

Baryte
centres.

Although these minerals, or, rather, these impregnations, are known to occur in many places on the island in an almost uninterrupted curve from east to west, commencing from Pilonisi and running on to Triades, the most important masses are chiefly concentrated in four localities, viz., Triades, Vari, Mirorilia, and Pilonisi.

At Vani, where mining for manganese ores is in actual operation, barytes have been found mixed with the former mineral, or in alternate layers with it.

How barytes
were dis-
covered.

Greece owes the discovery of this mineral wealth to the Sifnos and Eubœa Company, who had concessions for exploiting argentiferous lead ores on the western side of Milo, on the slopes of Mount Fâbas, near Galanâ, since 1880.

The discovery was made in 1884 at Triades, a locality adjacent to the grounds allotted to the above company. Strange enough, it was only two years afterwards that the Government were apprised that the minerals extracted by the company were not merely lead ores, but also silver blends, and they forthwith prohibited any further exploitation.

A temporary lease was, however, subsequently granted to Mr. Serpieri, the manager of the above company, merely with a view of affording means of studying the best process of winning the silver from the mother ores. In this way some 20,000 tons of silver barytes were again extracted, but the company were stopped in their proceedings in 1890.

It is said that the company in their former course of exploitation unlawfully disposed of the silver ores, and sent large quantities of them to Raurium and Europe; and it is also stated that quantities of the precious mineral were used to smooth down a road leading from the mines to the beach.

Ancient
borings.

The ancients appear to have been acquainted with the existence of silver at Milo, and it is a remarkable fact that in the minds of the inhabitants the idea at all times prevailed that the islands of Milo and Kimolo contained silver mines. At Cape Vani near the beach small borings of ancient date are to be seen dug into the trachytic rock, and veins of galenite, sphalerite, and baryte are therein visible. The epoch in which these primitive attempts at exploitation were made cannot be established, but the borings have been known to the inhabitants for many years.* Dr. G. Fiedler, the German mineralogist who described the minerals of Greece some 50 years ago, mentions these borings in his work, and says that he had observed salty clay in them, which his guide assured him was silver dust.†

Government
interest
displayed.

The Greek Chamber subsequently voted a sum of 100,000 dr.

* A. Kordella, Greece.

† Dr. K. G. Fiedler, "Reise des Koenigreiches Griechenland," Leipzig, 1841.

to be devoted to the necessary operations and experiments for ascertaining the quantities of barytes extant, and the average quantity of silver contained therein per ton.

Preliminary operations commenced in May, 1891, under the superintendence of Mr. Alexander Gobantz, the German metallurgist, and mining engineer in the Government employ, and a special laboratory was established at Athens for subjecting samples of the barytes to chemical analysis.

The result of the experiments, which lasted about 6 months, exceeded the highest anticipations.

As above stated, the principal peripheries abounding in silver barytes are four, viz., Triades, Vani, Mirovilia, and Pilonisi, the former two situated on the west, opposite Antinilo, the latter two on the east, opposite Kimolo and Polino. Largest
baryte
centres.

I. TRIADES.

The periphery of Triades, which covers an area of about 4,000 acres, or 478,400 square yards, lies between Mount Kalamarâs and Mount Fâbas, and is partly washed by the sea. It is within the boundaries of the mining operations conducted by the Sifnos and Eubœa Company.

The dimensions and quantities of masses in this district cannot be specified with precision, owing to their uneven and irregular shapes. Aided by experience, Mr. Gobantz, however, has been able to estimate them to about 2,200,000 tons. Estimated
mass.

Many of the masses contain small quantities of silver, which cannot be profitably disposed of owing to the expense of transport.

Such masses, which amount to some 30,000 tons, and contain from 100 grammes to 250 grammes of silver per ton, might, however, be profitably worked on the spot.

All the excavations made here and elsewhere were not of any considerable dimensions, as they were not made with the intention of reaching and raising the ores, but only to determine the extension of the anomalous beds and examine their importance in so far as silver is concerned. Excavations.

Five galleries were opened, from 26 feet to 66 feet in length, and five shafts, two of which were 66 feet deep.

The quantities of silver barytes at Triades amount to 750,000 tons, and the silvery clay and liparite to 1,440,000 tons. Quantity of
silver ore at
Triades.

The silver varies from 350 grammes to 1,000 grammes, and sporadically even to 10,000 grammes per ton. Proportion
of silver.

II. VANI.

Great importance is attached to the promontory of Vani, on the north-east of the island, as it contains, besides the remarkable

manganese beds worked by Mr. Serpieri, also large quantities of argenteriferous barytes, either mixed or in alternate layers.

Extent of
barytes.

These barytes may here be estimated at 1,250,000 tons, of which many, according to the analysis made, contain from 200 grammes to 240 grammes of silver per ton.

III. MIROVILIA.

Mount Mirovilia, situated at about 9 kiloms. to the east of the town of Adamas, is another important centre, and adjacent are the smaller peripheries of Pikrodoû and Kastanâ. Mount Mirovilia is 693 feet high from the level of the sea, the barytes occurring at a height of 544 feet.

Excavations.

Six galleries, of a total length of 360 feet, and four wells, of a total depth of 112 feet, were excavated here into the baryte and clay masses.

The mineral lode here was found to be uninterrupted, both horizontally and vertically.

Mass of
barytes.

The masses of this district are estimated at 2,500,000 tons (those of Pikrodoû being 50,000 tons and of Kastanâ 20,000 tons), half of which, according to the analysis made, have shown scarcity of silver; the rest, however, are rich enough, and some very rich indeed, containing 1,000 grammes to 2,000 grammes of silver per ton.

IV. PILONISI.

The periphery of Pilonisi, situated on the north-east, forms one mineral district with the neighbouring islet, which also contains silver ores and white, pure, plastic clay. As this mineral exists also on the opposite shore of Milo, the name Pilonisi (Gr. Πηλός, clay, and νησί, island) was given to the whole periphery.

It has been found on examination that the metalliferous lodes of Pilonisi extend beneath the bottom of the sea to the other islands of Kimolo and Polino.

Excavations.

Excavations were here effected to an extent of 460 cubic yards, including seven galleries with a total length of 297 feet.

Extent of
minerals.

The quantity of mineral masses here amount to 3,374,400 tons, and those to be found on the neighbouring isle 840,000 tons.

Proportion of
silver.

The quantity of silver contained in the masses of this district has been found extremely variable, at times reaching 2,150 grammes.

Kimolo and
Polino
Islands.

Silver barytes occur also on the western coast of Kimolos near Nichia and Pilos, and on the north-west of Palino, from Panagiâ to Mount Psilôvuno. The quantities of barytes and the silver contained in them are not yet known, the trial borings having been limited to the island of Milo.

Position of
the argenti-
ferous layers.

The barytes nowhere reached any considerable depth, but (as at Mirovilia and Triades) immediately beneath them liparites and

pyritiferous trachytes were found. The latter, however, did not maintain their natural condition. The trachytes lost their old hardness, and the liparites, by decomposition, gave rise to plastic clay, divided into zones of different colours, which shows that the masses were subjected to a constant change and oxidation by the metallic vapours rising from below. The impregnation of silver was thus effected through the masses of barytes and trachytes at the same time.

To what extent these several metalliferous beds reach beneath the surface has not yet been ascertained, the borings effected having comparatively reached a small depth, but guided by scientific facts, it may be asserted that they probably reach much greater depths, and are even richer in the inner layers.

As is well known, metallic veins, especially the valuable and noble ones, are generally to be found at great depths within the earth, covered by the more recent aqueous stratification, and, therefore, require great expense to reach and raise them. This, happily, is not the case with the argentiferous ores of Milo, which are rarely covered by the igneous rocks, and lie beneath thin layers of recent age. On the other hand, anomalous metalliferous masses frequently occur above the surface of the island, and generally consist of the barytes and trachytes mentioned, impregnated with sulphuretted metals, silver, lead, copper, iron, tin, &c., which, however, owing to their small quantities, cannot be profitably worked, with the exception of silver, which, of course, is the most valuable.

Nearly all the metalliferous masses contain, according to the elaborate and numerous chemical analyses made, a certain quantity of silver, which, however, differs in almost every part of the mass, without offering any outward indication as to whether one portion is richer than another, either in weight, colour, or any other natural feature. For instance, from a well dug a few square yards beneath the surface samples were brought up, giving 100, 500, and even above 1,000 grammes of silver.

Erratic disposition of silver.

This quantitative difference shows clearly the nature of the origin of the masses, the chemical changes to which they were subjected, and the effected saturation which varied according to the solidity of the rocks and the facility of communication with the metallic thermal springs.

It is, therefore, a matter of great difficulty, if not impossibility, to select the richer masses from the rest, unless the excavations are effected in open quarries, and the extracted ores arranged in piles, from each of which suitable samples are selected for analysis.

For this reason the Government have settled the question by embodying in one separate clause of the conditions under which they propose to dispose of the silver ores, an accurate system for determining the mean proportion of silver, by arranging them in piles of 100 tons each.

Proposed method for determining mean proportion of silver.

Total
estimated
quantity of
argentiferous
ores.

TABLE showing Approximative Amounts of the Argentiferous Ores of the Explored Districts, as Estimated by Mr. Gobantz.

District.	Argentiferous Barytes.	Argentiferous, Liparites, and Clay.	Total.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Triades	750,000	1,440,000	..
Vani	1,250,000	..	..
Mirovilia	1,500,000	1,000,000	..
Pikrodoù	50,000	..	..
Kastanâ	20,000	..	..
Pilonisi	2,584,400	..	..
Pilonisi Isle	840,000	..	..
Total	6,914,400	2,440,000	9,384,400

Estimated
mean pro-
portion.

Method of
smelting.

Laboratory
desirable for
analysis.

By adding to the above total the barytes and liparites which exist in divers points of the island, and have not been taken into consideration, but which amounted to over 600,000 tons, and appear fairly rich in silver, the whole quantity of argentiferous mineral at Milo will amount to a total of 10,000,000 tons.

The average mean proportion of silver for all the Milo barytes has been established at 547 grammes per ton, but it may be safer to bring that amount down to 500 grammes (or 17 ounces), defalcating the 47 grammes per ton for the loss engendered by the smelting process.

According to the above-mentioned authority, the method best adapted for the smelting of the argentiferous minerals of Milo (on the spot) is the old one known as the "Augustin" method, which is in high favour in Hungary, Bulgaria, the Ural Mountains, and other places, owing to its simplicity and cheapness of the materials used.

By this method the ores are reduced to powder in mills, or pounded in mortars, mixed with salt (about 8 per cent. of the whole quantity), and subjected to calcfaction in furnaces for 4 or 5 hours. They are then removed into vats, covered with strong solutions of salt, and left till the chloride of silver has completely dissolved. The solution containing the chloride is again removed into other vats, where the silver is precipitated by metallic copper.

The precipitated silver is afterwards cast into laminæ in suitable furnaces.

The above method is most adapted to our case owing to the facility of producing chloridic calcination by means of common salt, which, at Milo, is to be obtained abundantly and very cheaply.

A suitable metallurgical laboratory may be constructed with advantage somewhere at Triades, which locality is close to a practicable beach.

Such a laboratory having been considered an essential

necessity by the Government, they have made it one of the "sine qua non" conditions that the purchaser of the barytes should undertake the construction himself, at a cost of not less than 200,000 dr.

APPENDIX A.—Official Analysis of Mineral Ores of Samples brought from Milo.

Trachytes.

The rocks examined are trachytes, very hard, emitting sparks when struck with steel. They consist of quartz, impregnated with silica, and contain galenite, iron pyrites, copper pyrites, and honey-coloured sphalerite. These minerals occur either in the form of veins associated with baryte crystals or in conglomerations. Isolated baryte crystals often occur in the trachytic mass. The trachyte has a specific gravity of 1.45 to 1.60.

A general sample was taken and analysed at the Laurium Laboratory, giving the following results:—

Common Name.	Formula.	Equivalent.
Lead	Pb	= 0.870000
Silver	Ag	0.008928*
Gold	Au	0.000100†
Copper	Cu	0.638720
Zinc.. .. .	Zn	3.600000
Iron.. .. .	Fe	2.680000
Arsenic	As	0.089470
Antimony	Sb	0.896100
Manganese.. .. .	Mn	0.830000
Silica	SiO ₂	55.000000
Clay.. .. .	Al ₂ O ₃	3.400000
Sulphur	S	2.210000
Magnesia	MgO	0.576000
Lime	CaO	1.800000
Chlorine	Cl	0.222300
Barium sulphate	BaSO ₄	25.800000‡

* Equal to 89 grammes per ton of mineral.

† " 1 " " "

‡ { BaO = 16.95.
SO₃ = 8.85.

The baryte crystals detached from the trachytic mass contain Baryte 30 grammes to 50 grammes of silver for every ton of pure crystals. crystalline baryte.

This mineral, which was carefully extracted from the veins Galenite. and conglomerations of the trachyte, contains 39 to 40 per cent. of lead, and 0.057 per cent. of silver—that is, 1,451 grammes in a ton of lead. This trachytic mineral is considered unprofitable from an industrial point of view, because the proportion of silver

contained in it is not sufficient to cover expenses. Secondly, because it contains zinc, silica, and other substances that are injurious to the smelting of the lead. For this reason the analysis of this sample was not proceeded with. From examination, however, it has been ascertained that the galenite and the detached baryte crystals are comparatively poor of silver.

Yellow Barytic Clays.

A sample, consisting of 7,000 kilos., was found to be composed of clay and baryte, of a yellowish colour, and leaving on the tongue a sourish taste, such as is left by iron sulphate. The clays are closely united with crystallized baryte. They exhibit a metamorphic mineral, which has undergone a series of marked changes in composition and external form before passing into the final state in which it appears to-day. By examining attentively the sample one is led to acknowledge that these clays were produced from quartziferous rocks by decomposition, and subsequently were saturated with baryte through the influence of mineral-heated springs. This barytic argillite has a specific gravity of 3.14.

The general sample taken gave the following results:—

Common Name.	Formula.	Equivalent.
Lead	Pb	= 0.15000
Silver	Ag	0.04500*
Gold	Au	0.00156†
Copper	Cu	0.21500
Zinc.. .. .	Zn	1.90000
Iron.. .. .	Fe	3.26000
Manganese	Mn	0.25000
Arsenic	As	0.07890
Antimony	Sb	0.14267
Sulphur	S	1.70000
Clay.. .. .	Al ₂ O ₃	7.20000
Silica	SiO ₂	9.60000
Magnesia	MgO	0.68000
Lime	CaO	0.80000
Chlorine	Cl	0.12800
Barium sulphate	BaSO ₄	70.78000‡

* Equal to 450 grammes per ton of mineral.

† " 156 " " "

‡ { BaO = 44.08. "
 { SO₃ = 27.63. "

A portion of the sample was subjected to the smelting process by the known method of chloridic calcination, and out of 445 grammes of silver, contained in one ton of mineral, 300 grammes were obtained, or 67.5 per cent.

Lead-gray Barytic Clays.

In these clays the proportion of baryte exceeds the other components.

CHART OF MILO

SHOWING MINERAL DISTRICTS.

1st August 1893.





Specific gravity, 3.93.

The analyzed sample gave the following results :—

Common Name.					Formula.	Equivalent.
Lead	..	..	..	..	Pb	= 0.15000
Silver	..	..	..	..	Ag	0.02850*
Gold..	..	..	..	..	Au	0.00010†
Copper	..	..	..	..	Cu	0.15960
Zinc..	..	..	..	..	Zn	2.10000
Iron..	..	..	..	..	Fe	1.89000
Arsenic	..	..	..	..	As	0.05300
Antimony	..	..	..	..	Sb	0.41194
Manganese	..	..	..	..	Mn	0.37000
Silica	..	..	..	..	SiO ₂	6.20000
Clay..	..	..	..	..	Al ₂ O ₃	6.80000
Sulphur	..	..	..	..	S	2.20300
Magnesia	..	..	..	..	MgO	0.86000
Lime	..	..	..	..	CaO	1.90000
Chlorine	..	..	..	..	Cl	0.07410
Barium sulphate	..	..	..	..	BaSO ₄	76.40000‡

* Equal to 285 grammes per ton of mineral.

† " 1 " "

‡ { BaO = 50.168. " "
 { SO₃ = 26.232. " "

A small portion was also subjected to the above-mentioned smelting process, giving $162\frac{1}{2}$ grammes of silver out of 285 grammes, contained in 1 ton of mineral, representing 57 per cent.

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No. 255.

GUATEMALA.

GUATEMALA.

Mr. Gosling to the Marquis of Salisbury.

My Lord,

Guatemala, July 22, 1892.

I HAVE the honour to transmit herewith to your Lordship a Report by Mr. Ronald Gosling on the Coffee Industry of this Republic, which, I think, will be found of some interest, as this branch of agriculture constitutes its principal source of wealth.

As no history of the origin and growth of this industry in Guatemala has ever been published, the writer has had considerable difficulty in collecting materials for his report, which under the circumstances I trust will be considered to be well and intelligently drawn up, and a creditable specimen of volunteer work.

I have, &c.

(Signed) AUDLEY GOSLING.

Report on the Coffee Industry in Guatemala for the Year 1891.

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Preliminary
remarks.

The extraordinary growth of this industry in Central America, and especially in the Republic of Guatemala, would seem worthy of special notice, and inasmuch as there are still thousands of acres of land suitable to the cultivation of the plant to be denounced, or purchased on fairly reasonable terms, it opens up an extensive field for foreign enterprise.

Coffee exports
for 1891;
prospects for
current year.

The export of coffee from Guatemala in 1891 amounted to 52,197,853 lbs., valued roughly at about 2,185,397*l*., and this year's crop will, it is confidently believed, be considerably in excess of that of 1891.

Germans on a
better footing
than English-
men, owing
to their
favourable
commercial
treaty with
Guatemala.
Salubrity of
climate.

Owing chiefly to the very favourable commercial treaty between Guatemala and Germany, the subjects of the latter country emigrate on a considerable scale to this Republic. The retail trade of Guatemala city is almost entirely in German hands, and they are steadily acquiring the best and most productive coffee and sugar estates.

Speaking generally, the climate of Guatemala is singularly healthy, especially in the coffee zone, which varies in altitude from 1,500 feet to 5,000 feet above sea-level.

Temperature
and rainfall.

TABLE of Temperature and Rainfall in Guatemala City during the Years 1888-91.

Month.	Average Temperature.			Rainfall in Inches.			
	6 A.M.	Noon.	6 P.M.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.
	Degree Fahr.	Degree Fahr.	Degree Fahr.				
January	56	68½	66	...	...	...	...
February	57	72½	68	...	...	...	...
March	61	71½	71½	60	...	07	...
April	61½	76½	69½	...	2·33	84	...
May	63½	76½	69½	8·17	3·21	6·38	2·78
June	63½	73	66½	7·23	9·12	9·77	10·90
July	63½	73½	68½	13·65	16·82	4·30	9·44
August	63½	74	71	10·33	9·12	9·86	9·88
September	62½	72	67½	11·07	12·97	8·89	10·49
October	61½	71½	67½	12·49	7·34	6·47	9·38
November	59	70	64	25	22	2·23	1·20
December	58	70	64½	1·40	21	02	...
Average for the year	61½	73	67½	64·78	61·84	48·82	54·07
Total rainfall, annual	...	...	...	64·78	61·84	48·82	54·07

The large fortunes made in very few years by planters should attract the attention of young men in England possessing small capital. With from 3,000*l.* to 5,000*l.* to start with, a small fortune might, under ordinarily favourable circumstances, be looked for within a period of 10 years.

Fortunes made in the coffee industry; a good opening for young Englishmen.

The question as to the precise date when the coffee plant was first introduced into Guatemala is a much disputed one; it is equally difficult to ascertain accurately the district wherein, and by whom, the plant was first cultivated for commercial purposes. It is, however, considered highly improbable that this branch of agriculture existed in Guatemala before the middle of the eighteenth century, and, from information obtained, it is probable that the plant was originally introduced by the Jesuit fathers from Mocha towards the end of the eighteenth century (about the year 1770), who selected the fertile valley of Antigua-Guatemala for their plantations. Their venture seems to have been attended by a certain amount of success, as others, among them notably Don Miguel Alvares de los Asturias, were encouraged to devote their attention to this industry, and Señor Alvares is believed to have formed extensive plantations on his property in the Department of Jutiapa, in the east portion of the Republic. It is affirmed by several persons that before the year 1821 coffee trees were grown in many gardens and orchards in, and in the neighbourhood of, Guatemala, but they seem to have been regarded in the light of ornamental shrubs, and to have been admired as such; and it is certainly doubtful whether any regular coffee plantations, that is to say, land exclusively devoted to its cultivation, existed before the year 1835, and even then they were on a small scale only. Of large plantations there were none before the year 1855, anterior to which this industry was really in its infancy. During the last 30 years coffee estates have multiplied at an extraordinary rate, increasing year by year, and it is from this industry that the principal wealth of the country is derived.

Introduction of the coffee plant into Guatemala.

The coffee exports are steadily rising, as will be seen by the following table, showing the number of pounds exported during the last five years:—

Years.					Quantity.	Value.	Coffee exports and their values during the years 1887-91.
					Lbs.	£	
1887	..	..	..	..	48,539,267	1,994,546	
1888	..	..	..	..	48,743,024	2,003,734	
1889	..	..	..	..	51,571,939	2,119,162	
1890	..	..	..	..	51,973,414	2,135,743	
1891	..	..	..	..	52,197,853	2,185,397	

To the above should be added about 7,098,000 lbs., valued at 291,667*l.*, representing the annual home consumption.

Last year's crop was not nearly as abundant as had been anticipated, due to two causes, namely, the lack of labour caused by (1896)

Crop of 1891 below what was anticipated.

the ravages made by small-pox, and to the irregularity of the rainy season. Thousands of pounds of the berry were lost for the above reasons.

Extraordinary
development
of coffee
exports
between 1861
and 1883.

The extraordinary increase in the export of coffee will seem the more remarkable when it is stated that from 1861 to 1870 the total amount exported was only 11,481,420 lbs. (which was the amount exported in 1871 alone, no coffee exports being noticed in the statistics for the previous years), while from the years 1871 to 1883 the total amount of coffee exported amounted to 293,274,971 lbs.

The following table shows the total production of coffee, in 1891, in the several Departments of Guatemala:—

PRODUCTION of Coffee in the Several Departments of
Guatemala during the Year 1891.

CENTRE.

						Lbs.
Guatemala	..	..	..	..	..	394,738
Sacatepequez	..	..	..	..	..	5,184,176
Chimaltenango	..	..	..	..	..	4,608,427

SOUTH.

						Lbs.
Amatitlan	..	..	..	..	..	2,625,347
Escuintla	..	..	..	..	..	3,936,956
Santa Rosa	..	..	..	..	..	4,085,608

WEST.

						Lbs.
Sololá	..	..	..	..	..	4,087,941
Totonicapan	..	..	..	..	..	..
Quezaltenango	..	..	..	..	..	11,861,062
Suchitepequez	..	..	..	..	..	4,965,253
Retalhuleu	..	..	..	..	..	4,057,521
San Marcos	..	..	..	..	..	9,828,499
Huehuetenango	..	..	..	..	..	24,032

NORTH.

						Lbs.
Quiché	..	..	..	..	..	2,130
Baja Verapag	..	..	..	..	..	405,093
Alta Verapag	..	..	..	..	..	3,856,340
Peten	..	..	..	..	..	15,000
Izabal	..	..	..	..	..	..

EAST.

						Lbs.
Zacapa	..	..	..	..	..	157,056
Chiquimula	..	..	..	..	..	589,032
Jalapa	..	..	..	..	..	31,783
Jutiapa	..	..	..	..	..	65,097

Altitudes
suitable for
growing
coffee.

The altitudes at which the plant is most successfully cultivated range between 1,500 feet and 5,000 feet above sea-level, according

to locality and quality of soil, and the temperature best suited to it is between 60° Fahr. and 90° Fahr. In the lower lands, at an altitude of 1,500 feet to 2,000 feet, the trees have to be shaded, generally by means of tall umbrageous trees, which are abundant in the Republic, and occasionally by the banana, whose broad leaves are well suited to this purpose. If this precaution is not taken the tree wears a famished and sickly appearance, the leaves being mostly yellow and scorched by the excessive heat, and the crop yielded being at best an indifferent one.

Protection of trees from heat and cold.

Again, in districts where the mean altitude is 4,500 feet, a natural protection is required to shelter the plant from the cold north winds, which blow almost continuously (and which, in fact, is a trade wind), in the months of December, January, and February, a single night being sufficient to destroy whole plantations if the precautions referred to are not taken in time. In these high altitudes ranges of hills form the best natural protection, and in the plains it is customary to burn heaps of rubbish mixed with pitch, producing a dense and heated smoke, which is diffused throughout the plantation and affords warmth and shelter to the tree from the cold. During these months watchmen are employed on the plantations to ignite these rubbish heaps when the mercury descends below 60° Fahr. This custom is a very general one in the valley of Antigua-Guatemala, where the altitude is over 5,000 feet, and is attended with much success.

Artificial raising of temperature in the higher plains.

The development of this industry, due to the high price and reputation obtained for Guatemala coffee, called and frequently confused with "Costa Rica," has been extraordinarily rapid, and were it not for the scarcity of labour, it might undoubtedly be pushed to a far greater extent. The labour question in Guatemala is a most serious one, and many coffee and sugar plantations have of late been a poor source of income to their owners owing to this difficulty.

Development of the coffee industry.

Labour question.

Recently attention has been drawn to schemes for importing foreign labour from different parts of the world, and this is thought to be feasible. Not long ago a vessel was chartered to bring over to Guatemala a number of emigrants from the Polynesian Islands, but she foundered on the voyage, and the emigrants, 300 in number, perished. A second shipload of these natives reached the Pacific Coast in safety, but many of them were carried off by the ravages of small-pox on reaching their destination, owing to their not having been vaccinated. These failures, however, are simply owing to a proper want of care, and there is no doubt that the labour difficulty now exercising the minds of planters might be overcome were a well-organised system of imported labour elaborated.

Importation of foreign labour.

Lands suitable for the cultivation of coffee are still to be had at a moderate price, and it is confidently believed that were labour sufficiently plentiful, three or four times the amount of coffee now produced could be grown.

Coffee lands to be purchased.

With regard to the denouncement and purchase of land, it is, of course, natural that districts where the facilities for growing

Denouncement of lands.

coffee are good, and which are within easy reach of cities and good roads, are becoming scarce and command high prices; but in a more or less out of the way region, where a certain amount of difficulty would have to be overcome, there is undoubtedly a good opening for foreigners, who, with a small capital, temperate and economical habits and energy, might, after six or eight years, retire with a considerable fortune.

In the former case, where the best and most favourably situated lands are sought for, the expenses attending the denouncement of same may be computed as follows:—

50 dol. (about 8*l*.) per caballeria (120 acres) to the surveyor employed for measuring the land.

Price of land. 100 dol. (16*l*.) to be paid over to the authorities for every caballeria. The price per caballeria is, however, not a fixed one, as the above amount is the sum required when there is no competition. If, however, there are many bidders for the land, the figure is very elastic, and it will, therefore, be apparent that it is not in these localities where coffee plantations should be sought for, as the capital required is generally a large one.

Acreage of coffee lands under cultivation : difficulty in determining. It is not possible to give the acreage of coffee lands now under cultivation in this Republic, as the Land Record Office has never published any statistics on the subject, nor is there anyone here who appears able to give any information thereon. A singular ignorance on all facts connected with this great national industry is noticeable, and as the statistics (even when any are published) are in nearly every instance inexact, it is very difficult to obtain data for a report.

It is equally impossible to give the approximate acreage of land suitable for the cultivation of coffee still undenounced or purchaseable, owing to the same cause.

Coffee growers themselves are unwilling to let the real condition of their plantations be known, lest the Government should at any time call upon them for forced loans or subject them to additional taxes dependent on the value of their crops.

Values of coffee exports. In 1891 the total amount of coffee exported was 524,495 quintals (equal to about 52,197,853 lbs.), which, at an average price of 25 dol. (about 4*l*.) per quintal placed on board, gives the value at 13,112,500 dol. (about 2,185,397*l*.), showing an increase of 49,654*l*. over the export value of the preceding year 1890. It is confidently believed that this year's crop (which, properly speaking, should be called 1892-93, as the export commences in November and ends in May) will be the largest ever produced, as the climatic conditions existing at the anxious period when the trees were blossoming were most favourable; the rain fell mostly during the night, thus allowing the sun to mature the germ in the daytime.

Coffee culture. The season during which the trees are in blossom is a critical one, as, if a heavy rainfall sets in, the plant suffers considerable deterioration, generally indicated by a small black speck appearing in the centre of the pistil or fruit-germ, and where this occurs fructification will not follow. The flowering period lasts about

three or four days, when the blossoms fall, the germ appears, and continues to mature till about the month of October. The "cherry," as it is technically termed, is then picked and "pulped," that is to say, ridded of the outer cuticle and pulp, then thoroughly washed and put out to dry on brick courts to which the sun has free access. When thoroughly dried it is shred of the "parchment," the membranous skein covering the berry, by means of a winnowing machine, which in addition polishes the berry and rids it of any chaff and dirt; it is then collected in sacks and despatched for shipment to the different ports. In parts of the country where the coffee is only cultivated on a small scale, the berry is pulped by hand and transported to factories where it is perfected for market.

The Pacific ports of shipment are San José de Guatemala, Champerico (whence the largest amount is exported, as will be seen from the following figures) and Ocos, and Livingston on the Atlantic coast, but this latter port is not of much importance to the coffee trade.

The amount exported in 1891 from these different ports was as follows:—

						Lbs.
San José de Guatemala	..	..	..	..	..	16,846,704
Champerico	..	..	..	..	..	26,018,699
Ocos	..	..	..	..	..	7,485,956
Livingston	..	..	..	..	..	1,846,494

The principal ports of destination in order of coffee values are Hamburg, San Francisco, and London. A certain amount is also sent to Havre and New York, but it is inconsiderable.

Lately, however, New York has awakened to a greater interest in this trade, owing to the absence of any reciprocity arrangements between the United States and Venezuela, whence the former used to import considerable quantities of coffee; and, as such a treaty has recently been concluded with Guatemala, the latter has now usurped the place formerly held by Venezuela.

The finest quality of Guatemala coffees is consumed by England and Germany; and the inferior kinds, consisting of unwashed coffee and what is here termed "desperdicios," which in English may be rendered by "sweepings," are exported to the United States, where the finest quality is not in demand.

The approximate percentage on capital made by growers may be given at about 20 per cent., but this is dependent to a great extent on the quality of the land selected, climatic and other conditions, and a judicious and economical management of the plantation. It is frequently stated here that in three years the outlay on the purchase of the land will be repaid, but this is erroneous, and although it has sometimes occurred, it cannot be calculated on.

The number of private individuals who have amassed considerable fortunes through the coffee industry is very large.

One of the largest coffee growers in this country is General Manuel Barillas, the late president, who owns large estates in the Department of Quezaltenango, which are connected by cart road and rail with the Pacific port of Champerico, and which are said to be among the most favourably situated plantations in the whole Republic. So extensive are they that it is impossible to form any accurate idea either of their value or acreage. These estates are roughly valued at 400,000*l.*, but it is commonly believed that General Barillas' fortune may be put down at over 1,000,000*l.*

German
enterprise.

Over 20 per cent. of the owners of coffee estates are Germans, and this, as has already been stated, is the case with nearly every branch of industry in Guatemala.

It is to be hoped that the time is not far distant when Englishmen will turn their attention to this country, and endeavour successfully to compete with Germany.

Central America may be properly termed "a new country," and as to its natural wealth and immense resources there can be no two opinions.

The Northern
Railway :
great advantage of to
Republic.

The carrying out of the Northern Railway scheme (now about to be commenced in earnest), which will connect the Pacific and Atlantic coasts, bringing Guatemala city within 12 days of London, will tend to open up and develop the country. The civilising influence of the iron road will surely turn the minds of these races from revolutions and internecine wars, which have heretofore retarded the advancement of these beautiful and fruitful countries, with which nature has dealt so lavishly.

Tribute to
valuable
assistance
given by
Mr. Ascoli.

But for the kind and valuable assistance of Mr. Ascoli, the Consul-General for Sweden and Norway, I should have been unable to deal with the subject treated in this report.

LONDON

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